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## Incorporating an affective ambiance and authentic language to improve English teaching in Japan

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INCORPORATING AN AFFECTIVE AMBIANCE AND  
AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE TO IMPROVE ENGLISH TEACHING  
IN JAPAN

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A Project  
Presented to the  
Faculty of  
California State University,  
San Bernardino

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In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Master of Arts  
in  
Education:  
Teaching English As A Second Language

---

by  
Ryuja Ra  
December 1997

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AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE TO IMPROVE ENGLISH TEACHING  
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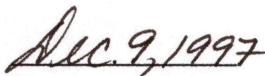
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by  
Ryuja Ra  
December 1997

Approved by:

  
Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader

  
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## **Abstract**

The main objective of this project is to help improve Japanese students' proficiency in English by analyzing problems prevalent in Japanese English education and by introducing teaching units that can compensate for the problems.

Because of the implementation of the grammar-translation method, English teachers in Japan mainly focus on reading and grammar skills. College entrance examinations play a big role in sustaining the current English teaching method in Japan. Since the college entrance exams focus on multiple choice questions about grammar that require direct translation into Japanese, it is necessary for Japanese students to study grammar to pass the college entrance test. Due to this type of examination, by the time they graduate from high school, Japanese students' listening and speaking skills are relatively poor even after six years of studying English. The main focus in the teaching units is to feature social functions of language, present authentic contexts and materials, encourage cooperative language learning methods, and facilitate affective education. By introducing these new methods into the current English teaching practices in Japan, English classrooms can become more vital, leading students to feel motivated, and to involve themselves more vigorously in classroom activities. The classroom climate will become a positive one for students, and they can improve their overall English performance.



## **Acknowledgments**

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## **CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

### **Introduction**

#### **The Role of English in Modern Japan**

Among the many foreign languages popular in Japan, English is the most familiar language to all Japanese because it is mandatory beginning at the junior high school level. By the time people finish high school, most of them have studied English for six years. In spite of this fact, the percentage of people who can carry on a basic conversation in English is quite small (Helgesen, 1987, p. 207).

Fluency in a foreign language in Japan is a big advantage when obtaining a job. More and more companies require job applicants to have special skills which differentiate them from other potential employees. Companies will welcome the applicant who is fluent in a foreign language. This is especially true for international companies doing business in Japan or Japanese companies which do business with foreign countries. Most companies who do business internationally prefer employees to know English so that they can communicate with colleagues who come from overseas headquarters. As a result, more and more people want to learn and acquire English for a better career. The more competitive the class of job applicants---for example, women who want to be employed as more than office help---the more the applicant seeks English fluency as an employment advantage. According to a survey conducted among women between 18 and 25 years of age, 65 percent said they can not speak English, although 90 percent aspired to be able to speak English fluently (Kokusai Bunka Kyoiku Center, 1991). Furthermore, 62 percent of

those who answered the question said they want to study abroad to acquire English (Kokusai Bunka Kyoiku Center, 1991). In fact, 60,000 Japanese people study abroad annually. Of these 60,000, 35,000 are actually studying English or are studying in an English-speaking setting (Sakae, 1991).

Because few people are fluent English speakers after attending secondary schools, many Japanese go to private English schools to improve English conversational skills. These are very popular (Helgesen, 1987); the total number of English schools in Japan is said to be over 20,000 (Kokusai Bunka Kyoiku Center, 1991). In general, more and more people want to learn English because English is a key to determining a person's successful future in Japan.

### **The Organization of Schooling in Japan**

In Japan, most people depend on formal schooling to learn English. English teaching starts when students enter the seventh grade and continues through the twelfth grade. English becomes a mandatory subject once students enter seventh grade. During the three years in junior high school, all students have to take the standard number of credits (classes) which are mandated by the Ministry of Education. Most students who go to an academic senior high school have studied English for six years by the time they graduate from senior high school. There are some vocational schools equivalent to senior high schools in which the curriculum does not include much English. Those schools teach technical and vocational skills which are useful immediately after students graduate, rather than focusing on pre-academic programs for those who will pursue degrees at universities. Vocational schools usually offer only two English classes a week.

In high school, students also need to take a certain number of English classes, just as they did in junior high schools. Those who go to senior high school normally take six English classes a week, as well as two English grammar classes. In eleventh grade, students are divided into different tracks depending on which university they wish to go to. If students want to go to private university or junior college, they do not have to continue to study chemistry and mathematics. Instead, they take more English classes. On the other hand, those who plan to take the Center Entrance Exams for admission to public universities have more subjects to study. They have to take chemistry and math classes, so they do not take as many English classes as those do who want to go to private universities. Students who wish to go to junior college and study such subjects as home economics also have a different curriculum at school. Since they do not have English in the entrance exams, they no longer study English in eleventh grade. Instead, they take more home economics classes. In the eleventh grade, the students who wish to go to a private university are required to take more English classes than any other group of students. These classes include English conversation. Although these curriculum patterns are similar in most senior high schools, curricula vary from school to school (especially in private schools).

### **Teaching to the Test: The Center Entrance Examination**

In Japan, students study to pass the entrance examinations. Learning English is not a goal in and of itself, but instead is a means for getting good grades in the exams (Helgeson, 1987).

The English tests which are in the Center Entrance Exams and private university



entrance exams differ slightly. The Center Entrance Exams consist of three parts: listening, grammar, and reading comprehension. The listening section comprises ten percent of the exams. For students, the other two sections are more important. They are full of multiple-choice questions. Students spend more time preparing for the latter sections. The entrance exams to private universities include multiple choice, but there is some variety: true-false questions, English-Japanese translation, English writing, synonyms, word ordering, fill-in-the-blank, and preposition questions. Some universities also adopt a listening test. Although these entrance exams have more variety than the Central Entrance Exams, most of the content consists of grammatical questions. Upon taking entrance exams, a student does not need to comprehend a whole story deeply because what is important in the exam is the ability to figure out individual questions which are not connected to one another.

In eleventh grade, students have the opportunity to begin to take extracurricular classes such as English, history, and Japanese, which are held two or three times a week after school. These classes are challenging because they are intended to prepare students for the university entrance exams. Students can also take these additional classes when school is not in session during the summer. Many students take the extracurricular classes during the twelfth grade, as the examination looms. In addition to these classes, students may enroll on one of the numerous cram schools and preparatory schools in Japan. Those schools teach students what to study in order to perform well on the college entrance exams. Students sometimes start going to this kind of school in junior high school. Going to cram schools (preparatory schools) to outperform others in the entrance

exams is common in Japan.

### **The Use of the Grammar-Translation Method in English Teaching**

In Japan, English teachers utilize the “grammar-translation” method (Taira and Sasaki, 1983). In this teaching method, students read some sentences in English and translate them into Japanese. After that, a teacher teaches the grammatical rules or idioms which are exemplified in those sentences. For example, students might be given a sentence such as, “Today, Jane has to study. But she does not want to study. She feels like talking to her friend instead.” This sentence exemplifies the use of the infinitive verb. With this method, students only learn what is in the textbook as interpreted by the teacher. Sometimes, translation into Japanese is somewhat awkward, because there are some English words which lose nuances or connotations after translation. Some students think that learning English is painful because they have to memorize the sentences in the textbook which include the grammatical rules which are taught at each grade level.

In Japan, the Ministry of Education has the power to decide educational content and method. They even mandate in which grade level students should learn certain vocabulary or certain grammar rules. Teachers have little say about the content or method of instruction.

Textbooks used in classrooms vary from school to school or district to district. Several companies publish textbooks to meet the standard required by the Ministry of Education. The content varies depending on which company edits each textbook, but all students are supposed to master the same grammar rules and vocabulary by the end of ninth and twelfth grade. Students learn English reading and writing with an emphasis on

grammar, and barely have the opportunity to be exposed to listening and speaking. Teachers give lectures to the students. Students do the listening. This one-way teaching method does not develop students' interactional skills in English. Most lectures are conducted in Japanese, and not in English. The teacher only covers what is in the textbook, and does not go beyond that. A teacher mainly focuses on improving students' reading comprehension skills, giving sentence examples of the grammar which appear in a textbook. In English grammar class, the teacher teaches grammar, and students memorize it. In English conversation class, students have to learn every single sentence by heart. Students are paired, and take roles speaking with each other in English. This is boring, because students have to memorize every single word in English and speak in pairs in front of a class. So although students work in pairs, there is little real peer interaction. By utilizing the grammar-translation approach, schools do not produce fluent English speakers, nor do students enjoy learning English.

### **Sociolinguistic Needs in English Teaching**

Due to the emphasis on the grammar-translation method, and because the content of the textbooks is very academic, most students do not know how to have an intelligent conversation in English, despite the enormous time spent on learning English in a classroom. Moreover, students learn a type of English which they cannot apply to real situational use.

To improve their English language skills, students need to know sociolinguistic aspects of the host language. When a sentence is uttered by a person, the utterance can not exist without its social meaning. So students need to know that the utterance should

be produced appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts, depending on situational factors such as relationships of participants, purposes of the interaction, and norms of interaction. Sociolinguistic aspects of the host language include knowing such aspects as what the meaning is of a particular reply to compliments in the target language. For example when flattered, people in the United States accept the compliment and say "Thank you" to the addressor. In contrast, Japanese people who are flattered may not accept the compliment and may even deny it. So it is important to know how people accept compliments in the U. S. Sociolinguistic knowledge complements grammatical knowledge: students need to know not only accurate forms of language, but also how the language is used in a specific situation. This means that students should have an overall knowledge of the host culture including social practices, conventions, and appropriate behaviors. Another example of sociolinguistic knowledge would be the following: If a university student in an American university has an opinion during classroom discussion, he/she is expected to be assertive and state the opinion and convince the rest of his/her classmates of his point. Being silent and not saying anything means the person does not have his/her own opinion.

For students to be competent English speakers, they need to experience circumstances in which they can learn linkages between social knowledge and communicative practices. For instance, people often have casual conversations in the U. S. People are open and friendly. In this contexts, such as talking to professors, it is better for a student to speak politely at first because the level of formality of the professor-students relationship can be greatly affected by the level of formality of the professor's

language. Professors are socially higher in status than students, and they decide the nature of the relationship and quality of the communication with students. Once students learn how language functions in different situations in the host culture, they acquire knowledge of who, when, where, and how to use the language appropriately.

When teaching a second language, it is important to have real communication between teacher and students or student and student (Imura, Kiyokawa, Terada, and Mozumi, 1989). In a Japanese English classroom, little communication takes place. Most of the time teachers are not good English speakers themselves, so teachers do not use very much English in class (Helgesen, 1987).

To establish an environment where students learn English effectively, a teacher needs to set up an environment where some interaction occurs between teacher and students/student and student. Since the social aspects of language are important when a foreign language is taught, the teacher can not ignore these aspects. The mere input of knowledge about language or a dialogue without social meanings attached to it does not enable learners to acquire language performance ability. Good speakers are those who know not only linguistic forms of language but also the communicative functions of language and specific functional meanings which correspond to aspects of nonlinguistic reality (Littlewood, 1981, p. 12). It is not until students have both types of knowledge that they can use language appropriately. For students to have both language competence (linguistic knowledge) and language performance (the ability to use it), a teacher must establish a social environment where students exchange meaningful conversation. By participating in meaningful interaction, students gradually integrate former learning into

their repertoire and can use it in more independent forms of interaction thereafter (Littlewood, 1981, p. 15). Meaningful communication is particularly necessary for English instruction to be effective for adolescents. Certain social contexts provide great opportunities for students to learn what is socially appropriate and communicably effective for the situations in which they may encounter. The curricular units which are included in this project demonstrate two social functions: having a chit-chat and making group travel plans.

These units have been designed as appropriate to be incorporated into high school or vocational school instruction. The unit on dating is particularly useful in developing adolescents' social relationships. During adolescence, children try to be independent from their parents psychologically and try to discover their identity in relation to their peers. They spend much more time with their peers than with their family. They generally consider companionship and intimacy as important when they enter late adolescence and early adulthood. They seek intimacy as important when they enter late adolescence and early adulthood, forming relationship with those whom they can respect and trust, offering mutual assistance, and enjoying one another's company just as friends (Nielsen, 1991). Therefore teenagers have a high interest in finding the right mate. The unit on dating helps students to learn to develop social relationships with people in general. The focus on useful language for having a chit-chat and making group travel plans brings to the forefront the sociolinguistic aspects of English, which provides a balance for the exclusive use of grammar-translation methodology.

## **The Reform in English Education**

There has been a movement to change the quality of the entrance exams in Japan. Especially at private universities, educators are finding other ways to judge students' extracurricular activities in high school to see how much they contributed to the community. Some universities adopt interviews to get to know more about a student as an individual.

At the junior high and high school levels, the reform of English education away from an over-reliance on examinations has already started. The curriculum has been changed from using traditional methods to teaching English language that students can actually use. In fact, the Ministry of Education decided in 1990 to hire native English speakers and send them to public junior high schools and high schools nationwide, so that students would have more opportunity to experience real English in class. The foreign teachers are called ATs (Assistant Teachers). Usually during an English conversation class one Japanese teacher and one AT cooperate to teach the students. In spite of this effort, most students are still unwilling to speak up in class. In this project, ways to enhance Japanese students' English competency will be discussed and a curriculum will be elaborated to enhance key social functions of English.

### **Key Challenges to the Teaching of English in Japan**

There are four key problems which English teachers face when teaching English in Japanese classroom. For each problem, ways to improve that aspect of Japanese English learners are described.

### **Little Sociolinguistic Reliance in English Teaching**

As already stated, English teaching in a Japanese classroom exclusively relies on the grammar-translation method. With this methodology, students remain silent, listen to, write down, and memorize what the teacher says. The teacher mainly focuses on the form of the language (grammar), and does not teach social/cultural aspects of the language. Without these aspects of language, students do not have knowledge of what to say appropriately. They might become embarrassed by uttering socially inappropriate sentences when they talk to a native speaker outside the classroom. Therefore, the sociolinguistic aspects of language are important when the teacher wants to improve Japanese students' English communication skills. By learning not only forms but also functions of the language, students can comprehend the language in a social sense. They will find a connection between forms and functions of the language, and will be able to use the language more appropriately.

### **Little Authentic Context in English Teaching**

Because of the over reliance on grammar-translation method and teaching to the text, students have little opportunity to learn the social/cultural context of English in Japan. When studying a second language, it is important to learn about the cultural context in which the language is spoken, because language and culture are intertwined. Therefore sociolinguistic aspects of language should feature the social context in which students must become linguistically and communicable competent. These contexts should be authentic, using materials and language functions that are featured in the cultural setting.



A community of people who have a patterned way of life create language so that they can preserve that way of life. The members of the community hold common values, beliefs, social norms and morals. When students study a second language, they need to be familiar with these social realities. Students need to know the cultural /social rules which govern the community. Then, students will know what is expected by the people of a community. Students learn what to say, when to say it, and to whom, in a specific situation. The behavioral and thinking patterns held by a community are encoded within scripts. In the literature review, script theory is discussed with the notion of culture. In the curricular units, scripts which are appropriate to the cultural context are designed.

### **Little Interaction Takes Place in Classroom**

In the typical Japanese English classroom, little interaction takes place. Class size in most Japanese schools ranges typically between 40 to 50 students. This is the reason why teachers can not use teacher-student interaction in the classroom. The interaction between student and student is also rare. In an English teaching classroom, teachers are the authority. Teachers give lectures to the students, and students are supposed to listen to the lecture. With this method, Japanese students become passive, and study English only to translate the text. By adapting cooperative learning methods, students have more opportunity to interact with their peers. Students will learn from their peers, and be able to enhance overall proficiency in foreign language learning. Students form pairs, discuss the issues at hand, and learn how to solve problems. These interactions make it easier for students to acquire proficiency in English. The scripts which are designed to be culturally authentic are flexible so students can expand their language skills by using

alternatives and choices in their peer practice.

### **Little Enjoyment is Involved in Studying English at School**

In the Japanese English classroom, students have little opportunity to learn more about themselves, because they are supposed to listen to, write down, and memorize what the teacher says. Students get used to this method, and their objective for studying English becomes simply to pass the college entrance exams, not to communicate with others. With this methodology, students become easily bored with English instruction and do not enjoy learning English. Consequently, their attitude toward English may become negative. An environment where students can enjoy learning English should include ways to develop positive images of themselves as learners and reduce the level of anxiety in learning the foreign language. Therefore, reducing anxiety in a classroom and enhancing students' self-confidence and motivation are important when the acquisition of a second language is discussed. Once the teacher organizes a climate in which students are free from anxiety and low self-confidence, students can have fun and enjoy learning English.

### **The Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this project is to justify teaching sociolinguistically useful English, to provide examples of curricular materials that present authentic contexts, materials and interactions, to facilitate peer interactions in English language learning, and to establish a climate in the classroom where students are motivated and enjoy learning a foreign language.

When English is taught in Japan, most of the time teachers ignore the social

aspects of English. Without knowing social aspects of English, students cannot have a conversation which fits specific social contexts. To help students become good speakers of English, it is important to feature materials which include meaningful social interactions and contexts. Also little interaction takes place in the classroom when English is taught in Japan. For students to be good speakers of English, cooperative learning needs to be adapted to foreign language teaching. Students interact with their peers, and learn from each other better than when they learn by themselves. Lastly, students do not have the opportunity to enjoy English language learning when traditional teaching method is used in Japan. To lower students' anxiety in English learning and motivate them to learn, it is important to present an environment where they can develop a positive image of themselves as learners and enjoy learning English.

### **The Content of the Study**

In the literature review, four topics are discussed. With this literature review in mind, a theoretical framework is offered to guide the formation of appropriate curriculum. Two sample units of sociolinguistically adept curriculum are included. Lastly, a means of evaluating the effectiveness of this curricula is detailed.

### **The Significance of the Study**

Current English teaching practices in Japanese English classrooms do not encourage students to learn the social aspects of English which will make them competent speakers. To help them acquire proficiency in English, social interaction is a key. Teachers can improve Japanese students' English communication skills by incorporating sociolinguistically functional acquisition, by using authentic contexts and

materials, by fostering active interpersonal interactions, and by increasing students' enjoyment of learning. This project offers a theoretical framework for improving English teaching in Japan, and includes curricular units that feature authentic interactions, contexts, and materials as well as coordinated assessment measures to evaluate the outcome of instruction. After reviewing the literature on the four theoretical perspectives which can possibly improve Japanese learners' English competency, teaching units are included based on the four themes to improve English competency among Japanese students. Assessment measures are also included at the end of the units.

## **CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

### **Social Functions of Language**

#### **What is Communicative Competence?**

Hymes (1971, 1972) introduced the notion of communicative competence as opposed to Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence. According to Chomsky's viewpoint, competent speakers are those who know their language thoroughly and apply their knowledge of the language in actual performance without being influenced by grammatically irrelevant circumstances such as changes of attention and interest, errors, and distractions (Chomsky, 1965, p. 3). Hymes (1972) criticized Chomsky's emphasis on grammar, stating that Chomsky did not consider social language behaviors which will occur in everyday communication situations and does not include social/cultural factors relevant to speakers' knowledge of language. According to Hymes, Chomsky's formulation of the notion of competence was not convincing, because he regarded both the ability to use the language and its actual use as the same performance ability. Hymes (1972) did not accept this idea and addressed the notion of competence differently. He formulated the concept of communicative competence as that which includes communicative behaviors other than mere verbal structure. According to Hymes, competent speakers are those who acquire how to speak the language appropriately--that is, not only the knowledge of grammatical sentences but also the knowledge of when to speak what with whom in what manner. Here he accounted for the broad sphere of variation of interactions that occur in everyday communication.



He also explained four kinds of knowledge that a native speaker has about his own language which is directly related to the concept of communicative competence. Those are systematic potential, appropriacy, occurrence, and feasibility. Systematic potential explains Chomskian competence. According to the theory, a native speaker is endowed with a system that constructs a number of language. Appropriacy is a native speaker's knowledge of how to make appropriate statements in a given situation. Occurrence is a native speaker's knowledge of how often a certain thing is said in the language. The more familiar a piece of language is, the more probable that it will be thoroughly comprehended. Feasibility is a native speaker's knowledge of whether a certain thing is possible in the language or not.

Hyme's notion of sociolinguistic relativity gives a new light to the field of social science. Differentiating performance from competence, he includes social factors as necessary features of competence. Wiemann and Backlund (1980) also take a social /behavioral perspective and define communication as including both competence and performance. According to their definition, competence is "the ability of an interactant to choose among available communicative behaviors in order that he(he) may successfully accomplish his(her) own interpersonal goals during an encounter while maintaining the face and line of his(her) fellow interactant within the constraints of the situation (Wiemann and Backlund, 1980, p. 188).

In another definition of communicative competence, Cooley and Roach (1984) define four components of communicative competence. Those are "communication patterns, appropriateness, situation, and ability to use." By communication patterns, they

mean the whole range of communication behavior: from language structure to nonverbal behaviors such as turn-taking. When people converse, they take turns at speaking in most kinds of interaction. Turn-taking involves many kinds of behaviors as well as speech (for example, eye-movements). Argyle (1973) states that turn-taking is a very highly skilled activity, in a sense that behaviors are to be coordinated with appropriate timing and responded to accurately by other interactants. Appropriateness of speech is determined in terms of culture a person represents. That is, every culture has its own rules that determine which communication patterns are acceptable for a specific situation. Also, a culture describes a set of rules that provide meanings in that situation for the certain communication patterns that a person may use. According to Hymes (1972), these rules regulate norms for interaction and norms for interpretation. In terms of a situational component, that is also perceived in relation to culture, because what is considered as a situation is determined by the rules of the culture and differs from culture to culture. The “ability to use” includes individual factors which construct psychological frames, such as intelligence, motivation, personality, and empathy which allow a community member to deal with, maintain, and use social/cultural knowledge to achieve appropriate communication acts.

In Canale and Swain’s (1980) and later in Canale’s (1983) definition, four different components make up the construct of communication competence. The first two reflect the use of linguistic system itself. Those are grammatical competence and discourse competence. Grammatical competence refers to knowledge of the rules of morphology, syntax, semantics, lexical items, and phonology “to decide and articulate

correctly the literal significance of utterances.” Discourse competence encompasses both productive and interpretive abilities. It is the knowledge of how to integrate grammatical and sociolinguistic competence to produce and interpret cohesive and coherent discourse. The other two kinds of competence describe the more functional aspects of communication. Those are sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. Sociolinguistic competence, as explained by Canale and Swaine (1980), included both knowledge of the sociocultural rules of speaking and rules for discourse. In Canale’s (1983) later design, competence in this area only includes sociocultural rules. Second language learners who are competent in this area understand and produce language appropriately within a specific social context. They know not only appropriate forms but also appropriate meanings of utterance to fulfill a specific social function. Strategic competence is described as the verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that can be used to make up for deficiencies in other areas of competence or to enhance overall communicative effectiveness (Canale, 1983). It is the competence underlying the ability to make repair strategies.

To sum up the quality of communicative competence, it is the knowledge of social rules as well as linguistic rules of language. Competent speakers are those who know these rules and apply them to specific situations in order to have socially appropriate and cohesive conversations with others. Also, competent speakers are those who have knowledge of repair strategies (verbal and nonverbal) to cope with unproductive communication situations and to make communication more successful.



### **What are Social Functions of Language?**

When people interact, communication inevitably takes place as they greet each other, ask about what is going on, and address farewells for the next encounter.

Communication is crucial in peoples' everyday social lives. It could be said that communication is a social activity, because we use language to manage and maintain our interpersonal relationships in society.

When people interact and engage in speech activities, they use their background knowledge and personal beliefs to take certain attitudes, and vary their language to fit the social occasion (Freeman and Freeman, 1994). These background knowledge and personal beliefs are community/culture specific, because each community/culture holds different social norms, values, beliefs, and attitudes. As a result, communication behaviors which are used in one community/culture become culture-bound, too. What people regard as the quality of competent speakers may also vary from community to community. If an individual is from a certain community, he/she knows the community's way of using the language to fulfill various social functions and accomplish interpersonal goals, because he/she knows what social values, beliefs, norms, and morals are shared by the members of the community. They adapt these culture-specific knowledge and situationally bound rules for language use. So how people use language to accomplish each social function differs among communities/cultures to a great extent. Each community/culture has rules that determine which of the many possible communication patterns are acceptable and appropriate for a given situation (Bentahila and Davies, 1989).

When learning a second language, it is crucial to have the knowledge of the cultural norms of native speakers of their target language, because it will help second language learners to know more about people and a language they speak. Without an understanding of the cultural norms of the target culture, second language learners cannot utter a socially appropriate word, and are likely to face difficulties in the input. They may misinterpret the objectives of the native speakers (Bentahila and Davies, 1989).

Therefore, it is important that the students learn to have the awareness of the presence of the cultural component in language use when they interact with native speakers. The goal of foreign language teaching then should be to present the learners with as much knowledge as possible about the native speakers' interactive and discourse norms.

Teachers should equip the learners to make different communicative choices according to the various situations in which they become involved. By choosing both the appropriate form and function of the language from a number of possible communication acts, they are able to present the right image and to do the right talk with the native speakers.

Current English education in Japan is mainly focused on grammar-translation methodology. Students learn a lot of vocabulary and structures but never have the opportunity to learn various functions of language which correspond to them. So it is important that students learn social functions of language in parallel to linguistic forms of language. Once students learn the culture of the second language and understand cultural contexts of the language, it will become easier for them to acquire various communicative functions of language as well as appropriate linguistic forms.

Brown (1994a) gives an explanation about a relationship between linguistic forms

and functions. According to him, forms of language usually suit particular functions. "Is Bill your friend?" is normally a form serving as a question, and a sentence "He is nice" serves as a statement. But this is not always the case. Sometimes linguistic forms are unclear in their function. "I cannot find my keys," expressed by an upset man who is late for work may be a frenzied request for family members in the house to look for his keys. A child who says "I want some juice" is apparently asking for something to drink in his/her own friendly register. A sign on the street that says "No left turns" functions to lead traffic either to the straight or the right direction, not to the left. The sign works effectively as to keep cars from turning left.

As it is obvious from the above examples, the purpose of communication behaviors is to transmit and receive thoughts, ideas, and feelings between speaker and listener. Each one of these exchanges of communication is not something that occurs merely as an event. It is functional, has some purpose and objective, and is expected to induce some efficacy on the atmosphere of listener and speaker no matter how small and unnoticeable it may be (Brown, 1994a). Communication is a two-way speech act, and both parties are supposed to contribute to the situation which they are in. The speaker will speak, and the listener will listen and understand it. Likewise, the listener can take a turn and state some opinions in an appropriate timing. In turn, the speaker will listen to what the listener says. Both modes of behavior involved in communication help to convey the communicative act between the speaker and the listener. Foreign language learners need to recognize the purpose of communication in each situation. For that reason, they need to grow in an awareness of what the objective of a particular

communicative behavior is and how to achieve that objective through linguistic forms.

According to Halliday (1978)'s functional approach to language, language is defined as social act which is exchanged by people. By aiming to establish a certain social relationship with others, people use language and learn how to interact with them. Learning how to speak, therefore, is a process to master a behavior potential. In this sense, it can be said that language is a form of interaction. Halliday (1975) observes a young child who is trying to acquire his first language and explains the early stages of language development from a functional point of view. According to his theory, seven various functions of language exist to account for human interactions. The following explanation for language functions provides a clear understanding of what those functions of language are.

The instrumental function. This is to control the environment, to stimulate certain incidents to occur. Sentence such as "Go to your room and do your homework" has an instrumental function.

The regulatory function. This is similar to the instrumental function. It is the control of incidents. The rule of encounters among people---permission, disapproval, behavior management, establishing laws and rules--- are all regulatory aspects of language.

The representational function. This is to announce, convey facts and knowledge, describe, or inform. That is to depict reality as one sees it. Sentence such as "It is cold" serves as the representational function.

The interactional function. This is to assure social maintenance. People use

language to establish social relations and keep contact with other.

The personal function. This is to express one's feelings, emotions, and disposition.

The heuristic function. This is to use language to acquire knowledge, to explore the world around oneself.

The imaginative function. This is to invent a world of one's own by using language for the sheer delight of using language. (Halliday, 1975)

These seven functions of language are not mutually independent. One sentence or dialogue might have several functions at the same time. Foreign language learners should keep in mind that they need to have a thorough understanding of how to use linguistic forms to fulfill these functions of language.

When it comes to the idea of appropriacy, Harmer (1983) explained five variables suggested by Hymes which affect speaker's choice of words. Those are setting, participants, purpose, channel, and topic. When a speaker chooses the proper thing to say in a given situation, these five variables influence the speaker's choice of word. In Japanese English education, teachers rely on traditional English teaching methods. Therefore a foreign language learner might obtain correct morphology, syntax, semantics, and lexical items but not have enough knowledge of how to accomplish a function that he/she wants or expects. According to Brown (1994a), he/she can accomplish a particular function through mindful choice of words, structure, intonation, nonverbal gestures, and keen awareness of the context of a specific interval of conversation.

Other than the functions introduced by Halliday, there exist innumerable variation

of functions that people carry out through language. Foreign language learners should learn how to accomplish such social functions as greeting, complimenting, requesting, reporting, and apologizing, for example. These functions are encompassed by Halliday's language functions, and they all take place as everyday communication acts. Upon accomplishing these functions, learners need to have a good knowledge of language. These exist slight differences between functions, and those differences must be mastered. Learners should be exposed to the appropriate contexts in which various linguistic forms are differentiated. Both the forms of language and the matching functions of language should be learned correctly and appropriately so that the learners can be competent speakers of the foreign language.

### **The Communicative Approach**

Considering the necessity of incorporating social functions of language into English teaching in Japan, it is good to introduce teaching English within "a communicative approach." The term "Communicative Approach" is first coined by Dell Hymes (1972). It is also called either "Communicative English" or "Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)". The Communicative Approach is a teaching method that emphasizes communication skills in a foreign language teaching. It specifies goals and important points in each stage of the learning. According to this approach, communicative competence is learned by doing and can not be taught in lectures. Classrooms should offer an opportunity for students to practice communication in a variety of real-world settings. In this approach, fluency may take on more importance than accuracy. Meaning has more importance than form. Function is the framework

through which forms are taught. In sum, the Communicative Approach specifies shifting the emphasis from the linguistic competence to the communicative competence, and introducing the opportunities to use and practice everyday communication in the learning process.

Current English education in Japan is mainly based on grammar-translation methodology. Too much emphasis has been placed on linguistic competence at the expense of communication skills in the past. Because of the different quality of the CLT from the traditional teaching design, those who plan to implement CLT should be careful how to incorporate this communication-oriented approach into Japanese English classrooms. According to Kobayshi (1995), a danger may exist in interpreting communication as English conversation and in rushing to practice new phrases before they are fully understood grammatically. To implement the Communicative Approach effectively, it is important that a student has a basic knowledge of the lexical and grammatical forms of the language, because linguistic competence forms the basis for effective communication. Only then can the learner acquire communication skills. CLT is good for Japanese English learners in that they will learn authentic and meaningful use of language.

Paulston (1974) is among the first to introduce the communicative approach, which includes grammar lessons using authentic language, role-plays, and practice in interacting in real life situations. She also emphasizes the importance of offering L2 cultural context crucial to the acquisition of communicative competence. The followings are the examples of some of the teaching strategies Paulston drew from Bruder (1973). In



the dialogue, Bill is discussing with Nancy about a popular movie he saw last weekend starring one of his favorite actors and a beautiful young actress.

Nancy: Hey , Bill. What did you do over the weekend?

Bill: Saw the new flick with Peck and Welch.

Nancy: Oh, yeah? How was it?

Bill: Peck was great as usual, and well, you don't go to see great acting from Raquel.

Nancy: Know what you mean. All the guys go to watch Raquel. For me Peck is the drawing card. Gotta go to class--see you later.

Bill: So long.

On the way home on the bus, Bill sits next to a lady who lives down the street. She is a good friend of Bill's parents.

Mrs. Cassetti: Did you have a pleasant weekend, Bill?

Bill: Yes, thank you. I studied quite a bit, but Saturday I took the evening off and went to the new movie with Gregory Peck and Raquel Welch.

Mrs. Cassetti: Yes, I suppose you are right. All of the young men certainly seem to enjoy her movies. From my point of view Gregory Peck would be the reason for going.

I have to get off here. It was nice to see you, Bill.

Bill: It was nice talking to you. Goodbye, Mrs. Cassetti.

Paulston explains the necessity of teaching the small talk of such situations which use phatic language such as greetings, introductions, and farewells as seen in the dialogue. From the context of the dialogue, students will learn how to accomplish social functions through language and become more familiar with culture of a foreign language.



Through Communicative Language Teaching, Japanese students of English learn about new ideas and expressions by studying the functions of language as a way of thinking. To have students become more familiar with social functions of language, some examples of social functions are drawn from Wolfson (1989). The followings are examples of how to accomplish some useful social functions.

In terms of the expression of gratitude, Wolfson (1989) analyzes Eisenstein and Bodman's (1986) study and states that the expression of gratitude needs both participants to interact together to originate a jointly satisfactory speech experience. There are extensive and dynamic interaction involved between the participants. The greater the obligation felt by the favor, the more often the expression of gratitude are made which follows its receipt. It is also found that thanks are to be repeated long after the incident which generates it.

According to Wolfson (1989), investigators find that the formulas which include two to five different functions of speech are used to express gratitude appropriately by the native speakers of American English. At first, recipients of favor generally show surprise at the offering and then succeed to their remark with the actual gratitude formulas (e.g., "That's great"). An extra speech segment of complimenting the giver (e.g., "You are wonderful") is also repeatedly used as part of the sequence of expressing the gratitude. Eventually, it is frequent for the recipient to engage in a further strategy of expressing a desire to maintain the relationship or to reciprocate the favor. Other strategies which occur often are refusal by the receiver. When the favor is first proposed, the receiver frequently prefers to look loath or surprised and gives a mild refusal. Many of the

refusals are formulaic (e.g., "Oh, I couldn't " or "You shouldn't have!").

In terms of apologies, Borkin and Reinhart (1978) analyze two expressions associated with this social function. Two forms are examined which are "Excuse me" and "I'm sorry." They find that "I'm sorry" is an expression of a disappointment about a situation seen as unfortunate or regrettable. When there is a friend's misfortune, people sympathize with him/her by stating how sorry they are to know the problem. On the contrary, the other form "Excuse me" is found that it is used only to repair a violation of etiquette on the speaker's part.

According to Fraser (1981), more strategies are used in apologizing. For example in more formal situations, the apologies become longer and more complex. Example are drawn from what he defines as formal situations, in which speakers say "I apologize," or "Please accept my apologies for---."

Each social function has several forms which fulfill them. Even for a social function of apologizing, there are a number of formulas used to perform this specific act by using language. For foreign language learners, it is important to know different social registers of language.

### **Authentic Contexts and Materials**

Because of the overreliance on the grammar-translation method in English education, Japanese students have little opportunity to learn English in its social context. What students do most for class is memorization without paying attention to social/cultural context of the language. For most students, this will soon become painful, because they only learn to the text without any meaning attached to it. When the goal of

English education is to equip students with communicative competence, it is not very effective to teach English without social/cultural aspects of the language. For students to have communicative competence as well as linguistic competence of English, it is necessary that students learn authentic contexts and materials which feature cultural/social realities of the language. Learning a foreign language is just like learning new ways of thinking, behaving, and feeling in that language. It is more than acquiring a new set of words, pronunciations, and other grammatical rules of the language (Freeman and Freeman, 1994). It is about learning new perspectives of the world, seeing the world from a different standpoint. It is essential that Japanese students learn English through authentic contexts and materials which include social realities associated with the language.

### **Why is Culture Important in Learning a Foreign Language?**

Culture is a patterned way of life. Language is the chief symbol system that transmits and reinforces cultural practices. The Random House Dictionary defines language as “any set or system of linguistic symbols used in a more or less uniform fashion by a number of people which has enabled them to communicate intelligibly with one another.” Because language reflects the cultural emphases or value systems that are accepted in a certain community, language and culture seem inseparable. Once a language is learned, the world is categorized by using that language, and people behave accordingly. Thought patterns and behavioral patterns are unconsciously influenced by the language to a large extent. Cultural patterns, as reflected in thought patterns and behavioral patterns, must also be learned when a second language is learned. Students

should learn not only language but also social aspects of the language. The social aspects of the language reflect cultural values of the language, so the students will know how specific values of the culture are reflected in the target language. Learning a foreign language is just like learning about different cultures, ideas, and thoughts. Students will have more understanding about and appreciate ways of thinking that are different from his or her own culture.

### **How Culture Influences the Way People Communicate**

Culture influences the way people interact and communicate with each other within the culture. If culture is different, the way people interact and communicate within the culture is also different. Therefore, there must be some cultural factors that influence the way people interact and communicate with one another.

Hall (1976) identifies high and low-context culture in terms of information processing. He states that in high-context cultures, “most of the information is either in the physical context or internalized in the person, while very little is in the coded, explicit, transmitted part of the message” (p. 79). In general, Japanese people expect one another to recognize the context and act in an expected manner. Therefore, Japanese culture falls into high-context culture end of the continuum. On the other hand, the U.S. is defined as culture in which “the mass of the information is vested in the explicit code” (P. 79).

Ting-Toomey (1988) states several communication principles concerning low and high-context cultures. According to Ting-Toomey, the motive to save face is strong in high-context cultures. In Japan, people see to it that they do not let others lose their faces

when they engage in conversation. The concept of saving face has a lot to do with shame. Japanese people may be more careful not to cause shame by uttering unexpected sentences during conversation. Also, people in high-context cultures use more indirect communication styles. They use extreme politeness and extreme tact. Since group harmony is the most primary concern, members engage in nondirective social styles. On the other hand, members of low-context cultures such as the U.S. adapt direct communication style and put emphasis on self-disclosure more. People tend to be verbose, open, and center on personal data. Another good example is a conflict style. In low-context cultures, conflict centers around an informational and somewhat confrontational approach. In high-context cultures such as Japan, people are likely to avoid conflict because they think it only deteriorates relationships with each other. These are some examples of how cultural values influence the attitude, behaviors, and communication patterns of people from each community.

Hofstede (1984) describes four cultural variables which influence communication patterns among people from different cultures; They are individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, power distance and uncertainty avoidance. He labels low-context culture as individualistic and high-context culture as collectivistic. In their study, Kim, Sharkey, and Singelis (1992) describe the communication qualities related to each aspect of this cultural dimension. They include important communication expectations which are listed below:

Individualistic cultures emphasize:

- concern for clarity, directness.

- truth telling, straight talk
- meeting personal needs and goals rather than group
- self-referent messages, more “I” than “we”
- more independent
- linear pattern of conversation

Collectivistic cultures emphasize:

- indirect communication
- concern for others’ feelings, avoiding hurting others
- saving face (not causing embarrassing situations)
- avoiding negative evaluation from a listener
- less goal direction
- more interdependent, group concerned
- fewer linear patterns of conversation

Kim, Sharkey, and Singelis (1992)

The cultural variable of masculinity-femininity includes a gender role differentiation in cultures. The U. S. falls toward the end of low masculine cultures while Japan falls toward higher continuum of masculinity (Hall,1976). There are communication style differences that seem to originate from these cultures. The masculine cultures tend to use more aggressive styles of communication. In contrast, feminine cultures are much more able to read nonverbal messages and are better prepared to deal with ambiguity. The cultural variable of “power distance” is associated with who holds the power in the culture. People from vertical cultures expect hierarchy, so authoritarian communication

style is more common. Those cultures that are low in power-distance are more horizontal. They are not basically organized around hierarchical relationships. As for uncertainty avoidance theory, the cultures that place a premium on avoiding uncertainty will use communication that tries to get a straight answer. Other cultures are more comfortable dealing with diversity and ambiguity. These are cultural factors which influence how people interact with each other and how they communicate. Language is a reflection of culture, and social customs of a community are embedded in language. Therefore, it is important to teach culture when a foreign language is taught.

### **What are Authentic Contexts and Materials?**

Culture influences how people use language. Language preserves cultural and social norms prevalent in the culture. A group of people have certain speech acts which are considered appropriate and are performed in a specific situation.

For example, with regard to rules for addressing people, Japanese people address one another by surname with nouns which are attached to the end of people's names to show a kind of familiarity. In the U. S., how people address each other depends on the nature of relationship people have with each other. But in general, people are more open and are willing to accept the use of informal language. Therefore it is not unusual to address one another by first name even on a first encounter. As it is reflected in the difference of the form of the address, social functions are specific to each culture.

Without an understanding of the cultural and social norms of the native speakers of the foreign language, students will face difficulties in communicating with native speakers. Upon teaching a foreign language, teachers need to develop the students'

awareness of the existence of the cultural norms of constituent language use, because the cultural aspect of language is important. Teachers should present more cultural/social rules of the foreign language use, and help the students become familiar with them. Through various meaningful and authentic materials and contexts which feature purposeful and culturally relevant interactions, it will become easier for them to acquire how to accomplish a specific social function by using the foreign language.

### **How do People Learn Authentic Interaction?**

According to Abelson (1976), people have what he called their own cultural “scripts” to direct and assess social interactions. A script is a coherent chain of events anticipated by the individual, including him/her either as a participant or as an observer. Scripts are acquired throughout one’s lifetime, some of them being modified, some of them being added some new meanings when added. A script contains a more fundamental element, which is called a vignette (Abelson, 1976). Vignette is an encoded image of an perceived event. It represents one constituent of a remembered episode in the individual’s experience. Three processes exist for a vignette to be created. First, vignettes have to be saved as individual experiences. Then groupings of similar events can make up categorical vignettes in which examples of a number of individual experiences are presented in a given situation. When an individual has enough experience in a given area, he/she can proceed to a third level. These three levels of processing an event are called episodic, categorical, and hypothetical, respectively.

To describe each levels of vignette, “not doing one’s assignment and being in trouble” script can be adapted. A child may save an episodic vignette of “the time when



he didn't finish his homework" with the ensuing vignette of "He was scolded by parent for not finishing it." This recalled sequence consists of an episodic script. At a higher level, general vignette of not accomplishing one's duty may be connected to a general vignette of getting punished, and together they form a categorical script. The hypothetical script is more changeable and complicated. It is likely to comprise provisional and presumed ideas to form possible categorical scripts. "If don't finish my homework by tomorrow, my teacher will be angry at me, but if my teacher were in a good mood, or if I copied my friend's answers, I wouldn't get a scolding and it would be OK." Hypothetical script such as this one can include a number of alternative situations where people need reasoning ability. Through enough experience in their lives, people acquire the process of establishing cognitive scripts.

A script is culture-specific, because what kind of interaction is expected next in a specific circumstance depends on the cultural/social norms of the community he/she is from. Examples of scripts are going to a restaurant, shopping for groceries, and visiting a doctor. In parallel to these, as more broad sphere of social interactions, there are interpersonal relationships.

Suppose two people who come from different cultures are going to interact. As it is easily presumed, miscommunication may occur due to their differing cognitive scripts; they both have their particular way of processing cognitive scripts according to their own cultural practices. For each of them to be competent speakers, they have to know each other's cultural patterns and language patterns. Cultural patterns are usually reflected in the use of the language. This is what is called the sociolinguistic aspect of language.

When a second language is taught, this aspect of the language should not be ignored. By learning culture specific discourse styles, students learn how to communicate and interact effectively with the native speakers. They will learn appropriate communication behaviors and other social practices, and eventually will be able to cope with interpersonal relationships interculturally. At the same time, the possibility of their adaptability to the host culture is enhanced. As a result, the students will become competent speakers.

In teaching a foreign language, teachers should develop the students' awareness of the existence of the cultural aspects when they use language. Bentahila and Davies (1989) state that teachers need to present information about how native speakers are likely to interact and arrange their conversation. It is not that teachers should suggest that there is only one proper way of using the language and expect students to conform to these patterns as an ideal; the goal should be to present as much knowledge of the script as is applicable, so students can learn about the native speakers' rule of usage and can be prepared to make different choices according to different situations. By being provided with the alternative ways of fulfilling social functions with language, students learn authentic interaction which is appropriate for the specific situations.

### **Examples of Scripts**

According to Schank and Abelson (1977), people have conceptual representations of typical event sequences. They know that to perform and accomplish one event, a sequence of predictable events occurs in text in which one enables the next to occur. The next vignette is an example of the script called "Shopping in a department store." Two

scripts are presented in which the first one happens in the United States and the second one in Japan. At the end, the two scripts are compared.

Script One (An example of shopping in a department store in the United States)

Salesclerk: Hi! How are you doing today?

Customer: I'm fine, thank you.

Salesclerk: If there is anything I can help, please let me know.

Customer: Thanks. I will (looking for something in the store).

Excuse me, I am looking for a green sweater which I saw in this store two weeks ago.

Salesclerk: A green sweater? Let me see. Is this the one you are looking for?

Customer: Oh, yes. That is the one. I couldn't find it. I wanted this sweater.

Salesclerk: What is your size?

Customer: Uh... Medium.

Salesclerk: OK, this is medium (handing customer the sweater)

Customer: Thank you.

Salesclerk: Did you want to look around to find a bottom which will go with this sweater? We have black pants that can go with it (showing the pants).

Customer: Well, I have something similar to that.

Salesclerk: Oh... OK. So is this all that you need?

Customer: Yeah.

Salesclerk: Then let's go to the cashier (Handing the sweater to another salesclerk at the

cashier). Christy will help you, OK?

Customer: OK.

Script Two (an example of shopping in a department store in Japan)

Customer: (Entering into the store).

Salesclerk: Welcome to Bosch. Is there anything you are particularly  
looking for?

Customer: Oh, yes. Do you have a brown dress? I'm looking for a brown  
dress.

Salesclerk: Let me see... I think we do. It's this way (going to the other side of the store  
looking for a brown dress).

Salesclerk: It's this one (showing the brown dress to the customer).

Customer: Oh! It is beautiful. I like this style. But I think this brown is not dark enough.  
Do you have another color which is darker than this brown?

Salesclerk: I think this is the only brown we have. Other than that, we have a black dress  
which is the same style with that. But I think this dress is really nice. It will  
look good on you. Also, I'm sure you can wear it for many occasions. So  
I do recommend this one.

Customer: Well, I think this brown is a little bit different from what I am looking for. Let  
me go to other stores first and see whether they have the one I want.

Salesclerk: OK. If you can not find the dress please be free to stop by our  
store. Thank you for coming.

In the first script, the salesclerk greets the customer and lets the customer know

that she is willing to help if the customer needs help. The customer asks a question, and the salesclerk answers. The salesclerk recommends a product in the store, but as soon as she finds out that the customer is not interested in the product, she stops recommending it. Upon going to the cashier, the salesclerk greets the customer, saying "Have a nice day."

In the second script, the salesclerk greets the customer when the customer steps into the store. Immediately after that, the salesclerk asks the customer whether she is looking for something. The salesclerk is willing to help the customer. But even after the customer says the brown dress is not exactly what she was looking for, the salesclerk still recommends the dress insisting that the dress is very versatile and that the customer can wear it for many occasions. After the customer says she wants to look in other stores, the salesclerk is convinced. But she says to the customer that she should come back to the store again in case she can not find a brown dress. Upon the customer's leaving the store, the salesclerk says, "Thank you for coming" as a farewell.

In contrasting the two shopping scripts, some points are mentioned as culture specific. In the first script, the salesclerk is friendly (regardless of whether the customer buys something from the store or not) and relaxed. The salesclerk lets the customer know that she is willing to help if the customer had any questions, but doesn't ask the customer what she is looking for. The salesclerk recommends the black pants to the customer, but when the customer says she has the similar pants at home, the salesperson stops recommending the pants, and doesn't say anything more. Before the customer leaves the store, the salesclerk greets the customer in a friendly manner. The salesperson in the

second script, on the contrary, is a little bit different from the first. She greets the customer, but she seems more eager to know what the customer is looking for so that she can find something the customer likes. After the customer says that the brown dress in the store is not exactly what she is looking for, the salesclerk keeps making constant suggestions so that the customer can stay longer in the store and can change her mind. Americans might have a feeling that the salesclerk from the second script is more pushy and wants to sell something to the customer.

Even with such a simple act as shopping in a department store, what happens in each context is culture specific. The customer in each situation needs to know what to say, and how to interact in each conversation. It is useful to equip English learners with various knowledge of scripts during the interaction with the salesclerk. The students know various choices that they can make, and predict the outcome of what they say in each social situation.

### **What are Authentic English Language Contexts in Japan?**

When people converse with others, situational context becomes crucial in that it determines what is appropriate to be stated next. Since Japan is a high-context culture, a number of messages are embedded in the context in which people are expected to behave according to their social status (Hall, 1976). This is why some people may think that Japanese people are reserved, quiet, and are not willing to join the conversation. The pragmatic rules of Japanese language require speakers to take into consideration the knowledge of social status of the interactants. Because of this social rule, some people may have difficulty exploring new social relationships with others. They may not know

how to initiate interactions, share information and ideas with new friends or classmates, or how to ask questions and keep a conversation going on a first encounter, for example.

In this project, the dating scripts are designed to develop students' ability to cope with social relationship in general. During adolescence, teens experience anxiety and confusion because of physical transformation. They try to be independent from their parents psychologically and try to find about themselves. It is this time that they develop their identity in relation to their peers. Therefore, they spend much more time with their peers than they do with their family. They generally consider companionship and intimacy of great importance, from which they learn to respect and trust, confide in, offer mutual assistance, and enjoy one another's company (Nielsen, 1991) as they enter later adolescence and early adulthood.

Therefore, it is effective to help them become accustomed to the dating script in which they learn more about American culture and how to present a positive image of themselves at the same time. It is good to provide students with the materials which feature the dating script in its cultural contexts, because they learn a number of alternatives that they can choose from when the interaction takes place. Since the content is based on the students' own experiences, they can compare how the social practice differs in Japan and the United States. They learn alternative ways to start a good conversation, and to have a good talk about themselves. They learn not only how to have a good conversation with a date, but also the process of developing social relationships with people in general. As a result, they learn various functions and forms they can use for this particular social script.

The following is an example of a dating script.

A (John): Excuse me, is anybody sitting here?

B (Anne): Uh no...no, here, let me move my purse from the chair.

A: Oh, thank you. Say, haven't I seen you with Jack Davidson?

B: I work with Jack Davidson. How do you know Jack?

A: Oh, Jack and I went to school together. What sort of work do you do?

B: Oh, I... I work on commercial accounts at the trust company with Jack. Uh...what do you do?

A: I'm a telephone installer- I just happen to be working on this street the last couple of days. I should introduce myself-my name's John Spencer.

B: Well pleased to meet you! I am Anne Kennedy.

A: Happy to know you. Do you live around here?

B: Yeah, I live in the neighborhood-it's real convenient to work.

A: Oh, it sounds like...

A: ... Are you doing anything tonight?

B: Oh... un, sorry, I'm afraid I'm busy tonight.

A: Well how about tomorrow? Maybe we could go to a movie.

B: Hey, that sounds like a great idea! Um... do you like comedies?

A: Oh yeah, I like comedies... uh, let's see what could we see? How about Bread and Chocolate? I think that's playing over at...

B: Ah...

A: ... on Main Street there.



B: That's a great idea.

(Continues...)

(Jones and Von Baeyer, 1983)

The script for the social custom of dating is a good example from which students learn how to have a good conversation with their opposite-sex friends and eventually learn how to develop social relationships with people in general. They learn various ways of interacting with others according to the specific contexts and situations. When given the authentic contexts and materials of dating scripts, students learn to use English for communicative purposes. As a result, students will become good at managing social relationships with appropriate linguistic forms according to each situation.

### **Cooperative Learning**

The research on cooperative learning significantly expanded in the early 1970's due to its positive effects on student achievement. According to a recent survey conducted by Puma, Jones, Rock and Fernandez (1993), 79 percent of elementary teachers and 62 percent of middle school teachers report the use of some kind of cooperative learning. It is also proven to be good for all grade levels and all subject areas. Lampe, Rooze, and Tallent-Runnels (1996), in a recent study, report that cooperative learning enhances Hispanic students' achievement, promotes self-esteem, and improves interpersonal relations. Another study conducted by Roswal, Mims, Croce, Evans, Smith, Young, Burch, Horvat, and Block (1995) also reports that a collaborative peer tutor teaching program improves self-esteem and attitudes toward school. This is why cooperative learning is so popular and often used in classrooms. In the next section, the literature on cooperative language learning is reviewed and the positive outcomes of

cooperative language learning are also examined.

### **What is Cooperative Learning?**

Olsen and Kagan (1992) define cooperative learning as follows:

“Cooperative learning is group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held responsible for one’s own learning and is motivated to enhance the learning of others” (p. 8).

From the above definition, we know that cooperative learning is a social activity. Students need to learn to work well with each other and to respect the abilities of others. When this method is adopted, students form small groups and work together to accomplish shared goals. Students study together and help each other in order to enhance not only their own learning but also other students’ learning. Cooperative learning is a mutual learning experience in that all students benefit from each other in the course of learning to cooperate and accomplish a shared goal. In the group, it is possible that high-achieving students learn new strategies by teaching other students. Likewise, low-achieving students may benefit from the group because they are able to observe strategies of high-achieving students (Larson, Dansereau, O’Donnell, Hythecker, Lambiotte, & Rocklin, 1984).

Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec (1994) give a definition of cooperative learning as “the instructional use of small groups through which all students participate to get the best result in their own and each others’ learning” (p. 4). In a cooperative learning classroom, all students in a group become responsible for the completion of the task.

Each student has to cooperate and contribute to achieving shared goals. In the course of accomplishing the assigned task with other students in a group, students learn from their peers skills that promote their overall social, cognitive, and academic abilities. More importantly, students learn the significance of working as a group. They become aware that they are responsible not only for their own learning but also for other students' learning. Consequently, students become willing to participate in a group and motivated to learn, and the mastery of a subject becomes easier.

According to Slavin, cooperative learning is "a process by which students work together in groups to master material initially introduced by the teacher" (Slavin, 1990, p. 2). In this definition, the purpose of cooperative learning is for students to help each other to succeed academically. For everybody in the group to be successful, all group members have to play a part in completing an assignment and grasping the material. Cooperative learning is important in that it stimulates a cooperative atmosphere in the classroom. Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991) indicate that cooperative learning results in higher academic achievement, more positive relationships among students, and healthier psychological adjustments compared to other types of learning methods such as competitive or individual learning.

### **Why Use Cooperative Learning?**

The popularity of cooperative learning results from the outcome of the research conducted on cooperative learning compared to competitive and individualistic styles of learning. Small groups provide greater intensity of involvement, and students have more opportunity to talk and practice English. The quality of language practice is enhanced, as

well as the opportunities for feedback and monitoring by the teacher. In a cooperative learning environment, students will be able to observe strategies adapted by other students, and learn to use them independently next time. In learning to speak a foreign language, as in learning school subjects, imitation is crucial (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 189). Pairs and small group work simulate natural conversational settings and this effectively promote all aspects of communication, learning, human interaction, and social development. Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec (1994, p. 11-12) report three major outcomes of cooperative learning: These are increased efforts to achieve, positive interdependence, and greater psychological health.

Increased efforts to achieve. All kinds of students have higher accomplishment and greater productivity. Their retention is increased, overall motivation is enhanced, and the level of reasoning and critical thinking skill is improved.

More positive relationships among students. Students feel supported academically and personally, develop more caring attitudes toward other students, and understand the value of cohesion and committed relationships.

Greater psychological health. Students learn to adjust psychologically in a group. They show increases in ego strength, social development, social competencies, self-esteem, self-identity, and ability to deal with dislike and stress.

Brown (1994b) states that small group interaction is a great opportunity for students to engage in creative talk. He also emphasizes the importance of interaction in a classroom, and explains that pair and group work are means through which students can develop communicative competence. Cooperative learning is a great activity for students

to get involved in authentic interaction with their peers and learn from them. Eventually, students can enhance their overall communication skills.

### **The Zone of Proximal Development**

Peer interaction is crucial to get a good result in cooperative learning as it pertains to cognitive understanding. Vygotsky (1978), one of the chief cognitive developmental theorists, points out that intellectual development occurs in the process of dynamic social interaction. When students have the opportunity to engage in active verbalization and especially in explanation, this results in cognitive restructuring and high-quality understanding. It becomes easier for students to understand their peers better. The fluent speakers accommodate their own language to give comprehensible input, and the other learners adjust their own language to that of their peers to produce comprehensible output. This way, all students learn and improve their communication skills while using English.

Slavin (1996) gives a similar perspective on cooperative learning and its effect on intellectual growth. He describes four major theoretical perspectives. One of these is a developmental perspective, which explains that if children engage in proper tasks and interaction with their peers, it improves their understanding of critical concepts. In a group, students discuss the material with group members. Inevitably, students have cognitive disagreements. Reasoning will be needed to support each other's opinions. In the process of accomplishing the task, students will be able to comprehend the material in depth. Students discuss, offer and listen to each others' opinions in a cooperative classroom. This is the key element of cooperative learning in regard to student

achievements.

### **How is Cooperative Learning Different from Traditional Learning?**

In a traditional classroom, students do not have enough opportunity to speak up. The teacher asks questions and calls on only one student to answer the question. So the rest of the students who also know the answer do not have a chance for feedback. They also do not learn well enough so that the content is retained. Most of the time is spent by the teacher giving lectures to the students. The teacher is the one who talks most of the time. With this one-way teaching method, students seldom have the opportunity to talk and practice conversation.

On the contrary, when cooperative learning groups work together to solve the assigned tasks, interaction takes place among peers. Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991) compare a cooperative learning atmosphere with competitive and individualistic learning environments. According to their research, students who work in cooperative situations have positive interdependence toward each other. Their productivity is enhanced because of the assistance they receive from, and give to others. They exchange and process more meaningful information with others. According to the researchers, interaction among peers also stimulates cognitive processes because students learn to give oral explanation and elaboration, make summaries, and share knowledge with one another. They provide feedback to each other, improve conflict management skills, show higher commitment to the group's goals, and elicit mutual influence from each other. As a result, they have higher motivational levels and interpersonal trust, and suffer from less anxiety. Cooperation produces a climate where students enjoy learning and become successful

learners.

### **Basic Principles of Cooperative Learning**

Kagan (1992) introduces three basic principles essential to cooperative learning. These are simultaneous interaction, positive interdependence, and individual accountability. These three are important elements to be included in cooperative learning structures. Some theorists define social and affective development as a characteristic of cooperative learning. When students are assigned to small groups, they need to learn to listen to each other, work out disagreements, establish and modify agendas, carry on the assigned task, and support each other. Cooperative learning works to develop students' social and affective skills.

Simultaneous interaction. Simultaneous interaction takes place when students engage in cooperative learning. In the traditional classroom, one person speaks at a time. Most of the time, the teacher is the one who talks to the students. Therefore, students seldom have the opportunity to speak up. But in a cooperative classroom, simultaneous interaction is possible. Students share resources, and discuss the topic. Everybody can have the opportunity to speak up. Most importantly, students are able to ask and receive help from group mates. Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991, p. 18-19) maintain that it is face-to-face interaction that most strongly affects efforts to achieve, committed relationships, psychological adjustment, and social competence.

Positive interdependence. Students are supported positively when positive interdependence is structured into the lesson. Students are responsible not only for their own learning but also for the other group members' learning, because no one can succeed

unless all group members succeed. Students have to make sure that all members of the group learn the assigned material. When positive interdependence exists among students, they share resources, giving mutual support and encouragement, and praise their successes together. Students then realize that for the group to be successful, each group member is required to make efforts. Each group member has different resources, role and task responsibilities. These individual and unique contribution make it possible to make the joint effort (Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec, 1994).

Individual accountability. According to Slavin (1990), both group and individual accountability is necessary for students to succeed academically in cooperative situations. Assessment methods which use a group grade or a group product without making each group member accountable for his/her fair share do not steadily bring about achievement gains (Slavin, 1983).

When there is high positive interdependence within a cooperative learning group, students feel more responsible for the group. Each individual feels that he/she has to give one's share and contribute to the group. Each student also feels personally accountable to the other group members. Because if one individual does not contribute his/her fair share, it affects the group as a whole and eventually the individual.

The goal of cooperative learning is to make each group member a stronger individual (Johnson, Johnson, and Smith, 1991). In a cooperative learning group, students learn knowledge, strategies and procedures from other students and learn to use them to complete similar tasks next time by themselves. Students learn together to perform better when they work individually on the similar tasks.



For students to be accountable to do their fair share of the assigned task, the teacher needs to assess how much effort each individual is devoting to the groups' work, give feedback, assign different responsibilities so that redundant efforts can be avoided. The teacher also needs to make sure that every member is held responsible for the joint outcome.

In addition to Kagan's three principles, Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991) describe two other elements of cooperative learning. Those are social skills and group processing. In the process of accomplishing the assigned task, students need to work together efficiently. At the beginning, they need to know and trust each other. They need to communicate well with each other, help each other, and work out problems (Johnson, 1990; Johnson, 1991). In a cooperative group, students learn social skills which are necessary when they later become a member in society. According to Johnson and Johnson (1991), social skills facilitate a group's productivity. If students are skillful at managing interpersonal relationships, higher achievement can be expected from cooperative learning groups. When students are assigned to practice specific social skills, they learn these social functions and how to accomplish them in specific forms in natural settings. The following is a list of social skills that students need when they work together on tasks and interact with group mates. When they engage in cooperative learning method, they learn these social skills in the course of interacting with their peers

#### Task-related social skills

Asking for clarification

Giving information or explanation

Asking for explanation

Paraphrasing and summarizing

Checking understanding of others    Receiving explanations

Elaborating ideas of others              Requesting clarification

Explaining ideas or concepts

Group-related social skills

Acknowledging others' contributions    Verifying consensus

Appreciating others' contributions      Praising others

Asking others to contribute              Keeping the group on task

(Olsen & Kegan, 1992, p. 13)

Keeping conversation quiet and calm    Recognizing others

Group processing is defined as students' ability to process how well they are functioning as a group. During group processing, students describe what actions of the members are helpful, and decide what actions to retain or change. The purpose of group processing is for students to specify and enhance the efficiency of the members in the course of contributing to the joint efforts to accomplish the group's goals. Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991) define five benefits that group processing brings to the students. Those are: (1) Groups can focus on maintaining good working relationships among members, (2) The learning of students' social skills is facilitated, (3) All members can have feedback on their participation, (4) Students think not only cognitively but also meta-cognitively, and (5) Students have means to celebrate the success of the group and the positive behaviors of group members are reinforced (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991, p. 23-24).

For a successful small-group processing to occur, it is important that the teacher

gives enough time to students so that students can process what they are doing as a group. Also, the teacher needs to adapt whole-class processing as well as small-group processing. Finally, the important aspect of both types of processing is to celebrate successes in groups. When students feel successful and respected, they become more enthusiastic about working in groups. Their motivation to learn is facilitated and a sense of self-efficiency as to grasping the subject material and working cooperatively is enhanced.

When cooperative learning is incorporated into foreign language teaching, it is likely to have many positive aspects from which students can benefit. The learning environment is cooperative, natural, authentic, purposeful, anxiety free, and very useful to the learner. Students learn to be responsible toward each other, acquire social skills and cognitive skills, promote higher self-esteem, and enhance overall motivation to learn by interacting and helping with each other in a group. The crucial aspect of cooperative learning is that students use the language in its natural settings. This will enable them to acquire functional oral language more easily. Therefore, cooperative learning is worth being incorporated into the English language teaching curriculum in Japan. A cooperative ambiance will do much to help students relax and enjoy English.

### **Humanistic Education**

In current English education in Japan, the purpose of learning English is to pass the college entrance exams. Students study English simply to pass the test, and not to communicate with people. Teachers mainly focus on English grammar, idioms, and the correct translation into Japanese. Students memorize this content. Too much emphasis is

placed on linguistic aspects of the language, and little attention is paid to social aspects of the language. When students learn a foreign language, they need to learn a set of cultural rules that are related to the language. Then, students can develop more understanding toward different cultures which have different social norms and customs from their own. In this way, the acquisition of English becomes easier.

But too often, little meaningful interaction takes place in the classroom. No meaningful exchange of conversation is involved, and no enjoyment is sustained in learning English. Students are not motivated, since they learn things that are not related to their own lives and experiences.

When students study a foreign language, personality traits of the students influence how successfully they master a foreign language. For instance, it has been reported that the inhibitions of the learners prohibit them from communicating in a foreign language. On the contrary, learners who are willing to make a guess were reported to be good language learners. This kind of personality characteristics learners have influences the acquisition of foreign language learning. Therefore, teachers should pay attention to emotional aspects of the learners when they learn a foreign language. To facilitate a successful foreign language learning, it is important that teachers establish a classroom climate where learners are free from ego barriers and are able to engage in spontaneous and natural communication. Several personality variables exist which can either facilitate/prevent foreign language acquisition. In the following section, the literature will be reviewed on various personality factors in human behavior and how they pertain to second language acquisition.

## **The Affective Domain**

According to Brown (1994a), the affective domain is the emotional side of human behavior. This complements the cognitive side of human behavior. The development of affective feelings involves several different personality factors. These factors include our feelings about ourselves and other people whom we meet. A useful definition of the affective domain was introduced by Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia (1964), a definition which is designed for educational purposes. Their definition explains five phases of the development for the affective domain:

The first phase in the development of affectivity is receiving. People must be aware of situations in their environment. They also have to be willing to receive and tolerate a stimulus, and give it the attention they feel it requires.

The second phase is responding. People must be willing to respond to a phenomenon or a person without feeling forced to do so, and to experience satisfaction from the response.

The third phase is to form values. People place worth on a certain thing, a behavior, or a person. This is based on the beliefs and attitudes of the individual.

The fourth phase is organizing values into a system of beliefs, creating hierarchy and relationships among them.

In the final phase, individuals become characterized by their value system. They act constantly according to the values they have internalized, and mix together beliefs, concepts, and attitudes into a world view.

To acquire a foreign language successfully, students need to be open-minded

when dealing with the people with whom they communicate. Also they need to be receptive to the language. When they encounter a person or a situation, they need to give a kind of responses they feel it requires. Most importantly, students should put a specific value on the exchange of interpersonal communication. When people come into contact, their feelings, responses, cultural values and beliefs are vital in determining the quality of communication in which they are going to engage. To better understand the process of second language acquisition, more attention should be paid to the intrinsic factors of the learners which in some ways affect the mastery of second language learning. There seem to be various personality factors learners bring to the foreign language classroom. These personality variables include how students regard themselves (self-esteem), attitude toward the target language and people, attitude toward the teacher and classroom environment, the type of motivation, the level of anxiety, and whether students are willing to take risks or not. Each specific personality characteristics is examined in relation to second language acquisition.

### **Self-Esteem**

When people interact with others, they bring in certain attitudes toward themselves. To engage in communication activities with others, they have to have certain degree of self-esteem, have confidence in themselves, know enough about themselves, and believe that they are able to handle the situation. People's attitudes towards themselves develop as they have experiences with themselves and with others who are in their environment and also from how the external world assesses them. How people see themselves is therefore largely affected by others in their close environment. Brandon

(1992) defines self-esteem as “the disposition to experience oneself as capable of coping with the challenges of life and deserving of happiness.” This implies that feelings of self-esteem equate to feelings of self-respect. As we have more experience with the world, we know who we are and learn to respect ourselves.

Brown (1994a) introduces three levels of self-esteem. General (global) self-esteem is mostly found among adults who have already developed their sense of worth. Situational (specific) self-esteem pertains to one’s assessment of oneself in specific situations such as social interaction, school, family, and work. Situational self-esteem also refers to individual traits such as social competence, communicative competence, intellect, and personality. A person can have a different level of specific self-esteem depending on the circumstance or the particular attribute under consideration. Specific self-esteem may pertain to overall foreign language acquisition. The last aspect of self-esteem is task self-esteem, and is related to specific tasks within a certain setting. To name an example, task self-esteem can pertain to specific subject-matter areas in the educational setting. Task self-esteem in foreign language learning may pertain to one’s self-assessment of a specific element of the foreign language learning process, such as writing and speaking. The degree of self-esteem may vary from situation to situation or to task to task. As an individual performs well in a variety of situations, the degree of self-esteem develops and this leads to self-confidence.

Self-esteem is a crucial variable in children’s academic success, because children who have positive attitudes towards themselves are more likely to succeed academically. According to Wright and Taylor (1995), self-esteem constructs the evaluation of one’s

personal identity and one's social/collective identity. Personal identity includes those aspects of the self that make the person unique: personal traits, skills, and experiences. The other kind of identity, the social self, includes those aspects of the individual that connect him/her with other people. Children who have a positive personal identity and a positive collective identity towards themselves have many more chances to do well at school.

For children to develop a positive sense of self, they should view themselves as special individuals who are accepted for who they are. They also need to feel a sense of belonging to certain social groups, such as their families, their friends, and their communities. When children have confidence in themselves, they are more likely to take part in learning vigorously, take risks, and find ways to conquer barriers to their success. There are many activities which encourage students to develop a sense of importance. Teachers can plan activities that enable learners to feel important by focusing on individual differences in personality, thought, experiences, and learning styles.

But the most influential variable, according to Siccone (1995), is the teacher. Because students tend to notice teachers' attitudes even when the teacher is unaware of having certain kind of feelings, the teacher needs to be careful. The teacher's feelings of self-worth and self-respect are essential to his/her ability to help the students build their self-esteem. When teachers engage in the activities with students, it is important that teachers show a proper level of self-disclosure, risk-taking, and eagerness for the excitement for the process. Teachers should take an active role in showing the students how to think productively, take moderate risks, and solve the problem at hand.



Richard-Amato (1988) states that students' attitudes toward the target language and people seemingly affect their level of motivation. The learner's attitudes towards people from different social groups are a powerful determinant of how successfully the learner will acquire the foreign language. When either the teacher or peers lack respect for the native language and its culture or that of the second language learners, their self-esteem is negatively effected. Negative interpretation of the first language and its culture of the second language learners also causes negative reactions among the learners, and they have negative feelings about the target language and its culture. Therefore, it is important that the teachers show respect for the foreign language and its culture in the classroom. When this is done, students learn to respect other students who speak different languages and who have different cultures from their own.

In terms of learner's attitudes toward the teacher and the classroom environment, humanistic activities can enhance students' good feelings toward the teacher, peers, and the classroom environment. When there is no respect or trust toward each other in the classroom, student do not have positive attitudes toward the teacher and the classroom environment. By adapting humanistic activities into the classroom, the teacher can maintain a good classroom atmosphere, and this stimulates more student involvement and activity. As a result, students' overall attitudes toward a foreign language, relationship with classmates, and each student's perception of self will be all improved (Moskowitz, 1978).

### **Motivation**

Motivation is a powerful determinant among other affective variables which

affects the success or failure of the foreign language acquisition. According to Gardner and McIntyre (1993), motivation refers to a combination of the learner's attitudes and aspirations and effort with respect to learning the language. Based on this definition, it can be said that when the learner has positive attitudes, high aspirations, and makes a good effort in terms of learning the foreign language, he/she can acquire the foreign language successfully. Another definition by Cook (1969) incorporates attitudes, values, and personality traits as the important components of motivation determining learners' behavior. What kind of attitudes and values the learner has toward learning a foreign language, and also what kind of personality attributes he/she has strongly affect the learner's level (type) of motivation.

The most commonly accepted theory about motivation is presented by Gardner and Lambert (1972) who explain two basic types of motivation: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation is associated with the individual's inner drive or desire to acquire the valued foreign language so that he/she can establish a social relationship with the members of the community who speak the language. Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, is related to the potential pragmatic benefits of language proficiency, such as getting a job or getting a better education. In terms of integrative motivation, McDonough (1981) introduces another aspect. He states that a desire of an individual to belong to a certain community by acquiring the psychological traits of the group is another aspect of integrative motivation. Graham (1984) calls this aspect of integrative motivation assimilative motivation, which explains an individual's desire to be an identical member of the social group who speak the target language. Due to the

varying learning capacities of each individual, which type of motivation is effective varies from person to person. While instrumental motivation may elicit highly positive result in a foreign language learning for some learners, intrinsic motivation may bring the best result to other learners.

According to Gardner and Lambert (1969), students who are highly motivated and have a desire to learn French did well in their French courses at school. They conducted a survey among students who studied French as a foreign language in three different states. They found a different attitudinal foundation for motivation in each state. In Louisiana, a strong support and encouragement from parents seemed to elicit high level of motivation from the student. In Maine, one of the important factors was for the student to be able to identify with his/her French teacher. Also, being sensitive to other people's feelings was one of the important factors to stimulate motivation. In Connecticut, students' motivation stemmed from both integrative and instrumental orientation. Depending on the social environment of each learner, what motivates the students is subject to change.

Another study conducted by Gardner and Lambert (1969) examined Filipino students who study English. They found that those who have an instrumental orientation and who obtain support from their parents successfully developed proficiency in English. Yet for another subgroup of Filipino students, an integrative orientation toward the English learning had a strong influence on proficiency, especially on audio-lingual aspects. As it is obvious from the Philippine study, what type of motivational orientation works best for each student in terms of foreign language acquisition does not have a clear cut definition. As Au (1988) concludes from twenty-seven studies conducted on

integrative-instrumental construct, the attempt to attribute foreign language success to either integrative or instrumental causes is too risky, because no successful foreign language acquisition is motivated by the attitudes which are exclusively instrumental or integrative. Depending on each specific educational setting (process), either one type of motivation may work better than the other, or even a mixture of each type of motivation may work the best. Regardless of the type of motivation the learner has in each educational setting, his/her attitudes and motivation are a powerful factor determining success in foreign language acquisition.

Parallel to the integrative-instrumental motivation construct is another motivation construct, intrinsic-extrinsic motivation. For intrinsically motivated learners, reward means the successful completion of the activity or engaging in the activity itself, rather than an external reward. Intrinsic motivation is finding enjoyment in doing a particular task for its own purpose (Sadow, 1994). Curiosity lies behind this intrinsic behaviors. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation refers to performing an activity in order to receive some extrinsic reward (for example, good grades or praise, etc) (Sadow, 1994). Deci and Richard (1985) mention that intrinsic motivation is possibly a central motivation of the educational process. According to Amabile (1989), contemporary creativity theory supports the view that intrinsic motivation is important to learning:

People will be most creative when they feel motivated primarily by the interest, enjoyment, satisfaction, and challenge of the work itself-and not by external pressures. This is called the intrinsic motivation principle of creativity.

(Amabile, 1989)

Teachers, therefore, should present activities that will enhance intrinsic motivation of the students in the classroom. Such activities will bring a sense of excitement and enjoyment to the students, and they will need to think creatively. This, as a result, will satisfy their curiosity.

### **Anxiety**

Anxiety, as well as attitude and motivation, influences language achievement. Yet anxiety is difficult to define due to its various types (nature) and levels. According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), language anxiety is the feeling of tension and apprehension associated with second language contexts (such as speaking, listening, and second language learning in general).

A number of researchers report anxiety tends to negatively affect language learners' performance (Ely, 1986; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Horwitz & Dolly, 1991; Price, 1991a; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Samimy & Tabuse, 1992; Young, 1986). In their study, Saito and Samimy (1996) examined a relationship between language anxiety and students' language performance among college students who study Japanese. The result shows that as students felt anxious and embarrassed about using the foreign language in class, they became unwilling to take risks. Those students tended to obtain low grades and had negative attitudes toward the class.

On the contrary, when students are not anxious about making mistakes and are willing to take risks in a foreign language classroom, they participate actively in the learning process and they learn more. Since they focus on solving a task at hand, they do not get distracted by worrying about their performance or becoming too self-conscious.

Ely (1986) states that language class risk-taking is a powerful predictor of students' language proficiency, since students who volunteer to take risks have more opportunity to practice the language and become actively involved in learning.

Anxieties over one's language performance cause tension and prevent a learner from processing information effectively. Leary (1990) calls this common form of apprehension social anxiety. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989, 1991a) argue that language anxiety derives from the social and communicative aspects of language learning and can be regarded as one type of social anxieties. Based on the definitions above, it is possible to explain how anxiety affects the process of second language learning.

Socially based anxieties are believed to have three different components: Those are cognitive, affective, and behavioral. Schwarzer (1986) defines social anxiety as feelings of tension and discomfort, negative evaluation of self, and a tendency to be shy and withdraw when others are present. Other than the three effects which are mentioned above, socially oriented anxiety brings other cognitive, affective, and behavioral results. (Fischer, 1988). For example, affectively influenced students may feel tension and fear. Cognitively affected students may experience difficulty in processing self-relevant cognition. Behavioral aspects of social anxiety cause increases in inhibited actions. Among the three dimension of social anxieties, cognitive perspective has believed to most influence task performance, and a number of research was conducted to examine the relationship between the two.

According to a cognitive psychological perspective, it has been suggested that anxiety interferes with cognition when students perform specific tasks. Eysenck (1979)

gave an explanation about what type of cognitive interference anxiety causes. He illustrates that anxiety is associated with inattentiveness, self-related cognition such as extreme self-evaluation, anxiety over possible failure, and concern over the evaluation of others. The nervous and worried learner has divided attention between task-relevant cognition and self-related cognition, since anxiety makes it difficult for him or her to engage in effective cognitive performance. As a result, he or she will have a difficulty processing task-relevant information, and the quality of performance will become less efficient.

Tobias (1986) presumed that when tasks are more difficult, rely more heavily on memory, and are not well organized, anxiety interferes with cognitive processing, and it takes more time to process task-relevant information. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) adapted Tobias's (1986) model (stages of input, processing, and output) to examine the effect of anxiety on input and output in second language learning. They found correlations between language anxiety and second language performance at both the input and output stages. But in a study conducted in 1994, MacIntyre and Gardner found that increased effort can make up for the effects of anxiety on the quality of performance. It is also found that as more time is spent to solve a task at hand, students become more relaxed and suffer from less anxiety in the information processing stage.

Anxiety can be experienced at its various levels. Distinction can be made between state anxiety and trait anxiety (Spielberger, 1983). Learners who tend to become anxious in a various range of situations have trait anxiety. For them, being anxious becomes a permanent characteristic of their personality. Learners who become anxious in

some particular situation or when they experience certain kind of act have state anxiety.

State anxiety is specific to a situation, and learners with state anxiety have cognitive interference only for a short period of time (for example, when they have to speak in front of the class).

Most of the research conducted on language anxiety emphasize the anxiety experienced while speaking the second language (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991b). Three elements of performance anxiety which are specific to foreign language learning are presented by Horwitz, Horwit, and Cope (1986). These are communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension occurs when learners are unable to express their ideas appropriately. Test anxiety is experienced when learners are afraid of negative academic evaluation. Fear of negative evaluation happens when learners need to make a positive social impression on others. Foreign language learning anxiety can derive from a combination of the three, but Kaneko and Takami (1994) state that it is also affected by the threat to a person's concept of self when he or she is forced to communicate with less proficiency in a foreign language than he or she wishes. Language anxieties mainly derive from social anxieties. That is, learners have personal and interpersonal anxieties over communicating with others in a foreign language. This kind of learner anxiety, according to Young (1991), is considered to result from low self-esteem and competitiveness. When there is competitive atmosphere in the classroom, learners sometimes compare themselves to others or to ideal self whom they hope they should be, and this can lead to anxiety (Bailey, 1983).

Another way to a question about "what is anxiety?" can be drawn from the



distinction between debilitating and facilitative anxiety (Alpert and Haber, 1960). When learners are a little bit anxious or worried about completing a task at hand and experience moderate amount of tension, this type of anxiety is called facilitative anxiety and it is considered to be a positive factor. As long as learners have facilitative anxiety, they can learn effectively and finish a task well because they have moderate amount of tension that works in a positive way. On the other hand, learners with debilitating anxiety tend to withdraw from the processes of second language learning. Therefore, it is important that the teacher presents activities which promote students' facilitative anxiety and reduce the debilitating effect of language anxiety.

### **How Can Teacher Promote A Low-Anxiety Classroom Environment?**

When the teacher makes comfortable classroom environment for students, it facilitates the process of foreign language learning. To minimize classroom anxieties among the students, Young (1991) suggests that the instructors do more pair work, play more games, and tailor their activities to the affective needs of the learner (P. 433). Likewise, Price (1991b) suggests that language anxiety diminishes when students work in small groups, do pair work, and experience personalized language instruction. Once they engage in group work, students naturally increase the amount of talking with their group members, and comprehensible input is also increased (Long & Porter, 1985). Another way to lessen foreign language anxiety is to adapt the Natural Approach. Developed by Krashen and Terrell (1983), the theory advocates that the teacher give comprehensible input to the learners at the beginning level of language learning. This is because the theory considers listening comprehension to be more important than speaking ability

when it comes to developing learners' communicative competence in the foreign language. By adapting group work and the Natural Approach, the teacher can make learners feel comfortable in the foreign language classroom and they can experience the foreign language learning efficiently. Too much tension and anxiety will prevent learners from processing information effectively, but moderate amount of tension is necessary so that the learners can finish their tasks successfully.

As another important thing for the teacher to remember, the teacher's role in a foreign language classroom should be the one as a facilitator. The teacher should be spontaneous, show moderate amount of self-disclosure in the classroom, and become actively involved in the various classroom activities just as the students do. When the teacher chooses classroom activities, he/she should select activities which make students feel comfortable in the classroom, promote their self-esteem, and grow respect for each other.

To summarize what has been reviewed in Chapter Two, there are four important aspects to remember when teaching English in Japan. First is to provide students not only with grammatical forms but also with matching social functions of language. Second is to use authentic contexts and materials which feature cultural/social realities of the language. Third is to adapt cooperative learning methods. Fourth is to consider students' affective aspects of foreign language learning. When these new variables are adopted to the teaching units, the result will be dramatic. The students will be able to figure out which appropriate linguistic forms to use for each specific social situation, know more

about the culture and its cultural practices, which in turn makes it easier for them to understand and acquire English. Also, students learn to help each other, and can benefit from each other in overall academic and social skills. By adapting affective education to English teaching in Japan, students will be able to enjoy learning English and have higher self-esteem after all. For these reasons, the adaptation of the four new aspects to English teaching practices in Japan may help to improve Japanese students' overall English proficiency.

## **CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FOUNDATION**

### **Incorporating Theoretical Principles into Teaching Units**

#### **Why Is It Necessary to Plan Teaching Units Based on the Theoretical Principles?**

In Chapter Two, the literature is reviewed which can inform English teaching practices in Japan. In this chapter, a theoretical framework is offered to accommodate basic principles into a teaching curriculum that will equip Japanese students with communicative competence. In Chapter Two, four topics were explored that may help improve Japanese students' English competency. Based on these perspectives, a curriculum design will be created by incorporating these principles into the content of each teaching unit. When these principles are incorporated into the teaching curriculum, the classroom environment will be more active and more fun, and students will not have to suffer from a monotonous English learning process. They will have more opportunity to use English in its social context, know more about cultural facts from authentic materials, interact with and learn from their peers, and increase in respect toward themselves and others. As a result, their overall communicative competence will be enhanced.

#### **Matching the Forms of the Language with Social Functions**

English teaching practices in Japan mainly focus on the grammar translation method and do not emphasize social/cultural aspects of the language. Students study English to pass the entrance examinations, which consist mainly of multiple choice questions asking about English grammar. Therefore, while most of the students are

mandated to take English classes by the end of high school, they can not use English which fits specific social functions that are used in everyday communication. Students have grammar knowledge, vocabulary, and know how to construct correct sentence structure, but they do not have the practical knowledge of how to manipulate linguistic forms to match each social function of the language.

For students to be able to use various forms of language according to each social situation and not to be embarrassed by saying irrelevant answers, the students should be given more opportunities to practice real functional English. For that purpose, the teacher needs to present social contexts in which students can learn as many linguistic functions as possible. The students then will experience a real target culture environment in the classroom. Their language skills grow naturally by participation and interest in the topic that is introduced.

### **Preparing Authentic Contexts and Materials to Elicit Culturally Relevant Interaction**

When English language is taught in Japan, learners study only to translate the text, and do not have the opportunity to experience real communication situations where they can use conversational English. The textbooks that are used are relatively rigid, because they are approved by Ministry of Education. To make English learning experience more fun and enjoyable to the students, it is necessary to prepare authentic contexts and materials that will hold their attention. By using authentic contexts and materials which feature purposeful and culturally relevant information, students can know more about American culture not only as that which is written in the textbooks, but also as facts that

they can relate to their experiences.

When introducing American culture and social customs to the foreign language students, it is important that the teacher compares them with that which is practiced in Japan. In this way, students feel more familiar with American culture and social customs that are being introduced. They will examine similarities and differences of the social customs between the two countries, and they can understand different thoughts or ideas that are held by the community members of that culture better, and also behavioral patterns that are practiced. Once students acquire cognitive representations of a series of events that are from American culture, they will enjoy communicating with people in English.

### **Organizing Cooperative Learning Activities to Facilitate More Classroom**

#### **Interactions Between Students**

In the current English teaching classroom in Japan, the teacher is the one who always speaks and controls the class. Therefore, students do not have enough opportunity to practice oral English in the classroom. No interaction occurs between students, which makes it difficult for the students to improve their overall English proficiency skills. For successful foreign language acquisition to occur, interaction is important. When students engage in small group activities, they become involved more intensely, and they have more chances to practice English. A natural English-speaking environment will facilitate the students' acquisition of English. Teachers therefore should organize group activities into daily school curriculum and include social objectives in their curriculum planning.

There are in fact many positive results that peer-to-peer social interaction brings to the students' academic achievement. Interaction between students brings broader knowledge to the students because they share opinions with their peers, and learn new things from others. Social interaction stimulates cognitive processing, and students better understand overall cognitive concepts. A cooperative atmosphere in the classroom also develops higher motivation and interpersonal trust among students, who then suffer from less anxiety. Students focus on getting involved in authentic conversation and interaction with their peers, and are able to promote all aspects of communication.

### **Developing Respect for Oneself and Others**

In the Japanese education system, a majority of students study English to pass the entrance examinations to the colleges. They study English to pass the test, not for the purpose to have conversation with real people in English. Teachers use a one-way teaching method, and spend most of the time in the classroom giving lectures to the students. The focus is the teacher, and not the students. Teachers give as much grammatical knowledge as possible to the students so that they can perform well on the test. Students have too much information to memorize without any meaning attached. This is painful for the students and also not very efficient for them in terms of long-term retention.

As a result, students sometimes do not have high motivation because they can not enjoy the experience of learning English at school. They are always busy memorizing English words or idioms without any social meanings being given to them. The priority is to get higher scores on the test, and not to learn how to have an interesting conversation

with native speakers. In this way, they can not develop a positive sense of self because too often, students' feelings or emotions are ignored. Also, students can not develop communicative competence because all they learn is to pass the test, not to become socially competitive English speakers.

To make English learning process more fun, teachers need to create comfortable classroom environment for the students so that they can have less anxiety about foreign language learning. Also, teachers need to promote positive self-esteem among the students. Teachers can do this by presenting various kind of activities that can promote the way how students feel about themselves. When students know that they are very special individual and they are accepted for who they are, they learn to respect themselves, and also others.

In the next chapter, the four perspectives that are outlined above are incorporated into a curriculum project. The goals of the curriculum project are to match the forms of the language with social functions so that students can use English appropriately, present authentic contexts and materials in order to elicit culturally relevant and meaningful interactions, facilitate more classroom interactions between students so that students can build a supported community of foreign language learners and learn from each other, and make the English learning experience more fun and enjoyable and develop respect for oneself and others.

### **Assessment**

To assess how students are doing in class, Assessment Sheets are adapted for each lesson. The objective of this project is to incorporate four new perspectives into the



teaching unit at the end of the project. These are social aspects of English, authentic contexts and materials, cooperative learning, and humanistic education. Since the lesson plans mainly deal with social/cultural aspects of English and contain at least two or more perspectives introduced in the literature review part, students can enjoy learning these lessons and acquire English more easily. The teacher can find the Assessment Sheet at the end of each lesson. All the teacher has to do is to distribute each Assessment Sheet every time he/she finishes teaching each one lesson, and evaluate how well students are keeping up with the class. Some Assessment Sheets require that students make pairs and practice conversing with a partner. This is to improve Japanese students' speaking skills. Since the dialogues in the Assessment Sheets are interesting and offer social/linguistic content to English teaching, students should not suffer from rote memorization and will instead enjoy live conversation with a partner.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: CURRICULUM UNITS**

### **Unit 1 Having a Chit-Chat**

In this unit, students learn specific linguistic functions that are necessary in their everyday lives. They learn how to start a conversation with people, how to talk about their interests, how to talk about their family, how to make a date, how to talk about travel/vacations, and how to make plans. In the process of learning these functions, students enjoy the authentic interactions that are created between the peers in the classroom. As a result, the unit will help students to become a good speaker of English.

#### **Lesson 1: Getting Acquainted**

**Objectives.** Learn how to start a conversation with a stranger and get to know each other, learn how to talk about themselves and get others to talk about themselves.

**Warm-Up.** Before starting the lesson, the teacher explains the difference between an acquaintance and a friend. An acquaintance is someone one knows, but not very well. When one meets an acquaintance, one often has a short, friendly conversation about a safe topic. A safe topic is one that is not too personal, such as sports or the weather. This kind of conversation is called small talk.

**Activity 1.** Give students Sheet 1-1, and then ask students whether there is new vocabulary unfamiliar to them. If they have any, explain the meaning of those words and practice them with the class. After they read Sheet 1-1, students form pairs and start a conversation. Here are some useful ways of starting a conversation with a stranger. Students can choose one opening below and start a conversation.

Horrible weather we are having.

Do you need a hand?

Do you need any help?

Excuse me, is anybody sitting here?

Say, don't I know you from somewhere?

Sorry, I couldn't help overhearing- did you mention something about...

Excuse me, have you got a light?

Uh, could you help me, I'm looking for...

(Jones and Von Bayer, 1983)

Then, the teacher gives the students Sheet 1-2, presenting some ways to greet a person one has just met. Using this as an example, students talk to a partner. Tell the students to be friendly and talk about themselves to a partner. Also, there is a dialogue where Joe is talking to Chen, his acquaintance. Students practice small talk with a partner learning how to start a conversation with an acquaintance.

Activity 2. Give student Sheet 1-3. Tell students to form pairs, and check the places where they have most often had small talk with strangers. Have them discuss answers with classmates (1). Then, have them look at the list of things people might do when they meet someone for the first time. Check the things they usually do (2).

Activity 3. Have the students look at the list below and check the ones they think are usually safe topics when they first meet a stranger. Have them put an X next to the ones they think are usually not safe.

- |   |                                       |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 1. ____ the weather                                   | 9. ____ school                        |
| 2. ____ sports  | 10. ____ free time                    |
| 3. ____ someone's health                              | 11. ____ hobbies                      |
| 4. ____ someone's appearance                          | 12. ____ food                         |
| 5. ____ the other person's job                        | 13. ____ your friend                  |
| 6. ____ the cost of something<br>the other person has | 14. ____ your families                |
| 7. ____ someone you both know                         | 15. ____ politics                     |
| 8. ____ vacations                                     | 16. ____ people's ages or<br>salaries |
- (Hynes & Baichman, 1989)

**Activity 4.** The following are examples of questions to ask to your classmates.

Make pairs and discuss answers with classmates.

- a. Why do you think some topics are usually safe, but others are usually not safe?
- b. Why are some topics safe only some of the time? Can you give an example?
- c. In other countries, what topics are usually not safe in small talk with acquaintances?

(Hynes & Baichman, 1989)

**Activity 5.** Distribute Sheet 1-4 to the students. Ask them how they think about these statements. Then discuss the questions.

**Activity 6 (Assessment).** This is to assess how students have made progress after

learning this lesson. Have students choose one of the following situations. Tell them to form pairs, and practice making small talk pretending that they are strangers to each other.

- a. waiting a long time at a bus stop
- b. sitting on a park bench on a beautiful day
- c. arriving for an appointment at a crowded dentist's office

(Hynes and Baichman, 1989)

## **Lesson 2: Talking about Interests**

**Objectives.** Learn how to talk about one's hobbies, interests, or concerns. Learn how to ask about other people's interest, find common interests, and get close to them.

**Activity 1.** Distribute Sheet 2-1 to the students. The teacher reads the dialogue with the class. Ask students whether there are any unfamiliar words in the handout. Explain to the students the meaning of those words. Have the students form pairs, and practice the dialogue in turn.

**Activity 2.** Teach the students basic way to convey their interests and ask about other people's hobbies. Examples are as follows. Have them form pairs and ask each other what they like to do.

What do you like to do?

I like (enjoy) football

He wants to go to a football game.

I don't like soccer

He doesn't want to stay home

Do you like movies?

Does his wife want to go to the game?

Yes, I do.

No, she doesn't

What kinds of movies do  
you like?

Why doesn't she want to go?

I like love stories.

Because she doesn't like sports.

(Elbaum & Peman, 1989)

Activity 3. Have students form pairs and make their own dialogue using the expressions learned in Activity 2. Tell students to ask their partners about the things they like or the activities they like to do. Tell them to first ask a yes/no question. Examples are as follows.

Example: A: Do you like national holidays?

B: Yes, I do.

A: How do you celebrate national holidays?

B: I invite my friends to my house, and we all enjoy food that  
everybody brings.

go to concerts

read magazines

rock music (what kind of music)

nonfiction books

go to museums

stay home on Saturday night

art (what kind) (which artist)

go to parties

watch TV

invite people over

talk shows

get up early on Sunday morning

movies

listen to the radio

horror movies

eat popcorn at the movies

(Elbaum & Peman, 1989)

Activity 4. Tell students the following: When we talk about activities we enjoy,

we usually use words or phrases to describe the pleasure and positive feelings we get from them. We also give reasons for the way we feel, and often offer additional information to support our reasons. After the students finish discussing what they like to do with their partners in Activity 3, the teacher tells students to discuss what they like to do with their partner. What are some words and phrases that can be used to express pleasure and positive feelings? (for example, fun, exciting, stimulating, relaxing, healthy, and social etc. Playing basketball gives me energy. I feel refreshed after playing basketball).

Activity 5. Distribute Sheet 2-2 to the students, and tell them to ask their partner about the things he or she likes. Also, tell them to talk about the pleasure and positive feelings these activities bring. Each student has to write a paper about “what I like to do”.

Activity 6. After students finish Activity 5, have them tell the class some interesting things they learned about their partner’s likes and dislikes.

Activity 7. There are other ways to express our feelings and add more information to them. Discuss with the class how they feel about activities they like and why they feel that way. Here are some phrases to help.

I just love \_\_\_\_\_ because...

I’m crazy about \_\_\_\_\_ because...

I absolutely love \_\_\_\_\_ because...

What I really like about \_\_\_\_\_ is that.....

What I find so \_\_\_\_\_ about \_\_\_\_\_ is that...

What I really enjoy about \_\_\_\_\_ is that...

(Hynes & Baichman, 1989)

#### Activity 8. Comprehensive Test (Assessment)

Have students choose one of the following topics and discuss it with a partner who chose the same topic.

1. Talk about some things you like to do on the weekends.
2. Talk about some things you want to do or plan to do in the next 5 years.
3. Ask the teacher about the activities he or she likes or wants to do.

(Elbaum & Peman, 1989)

### **Lesson 3: Talking about Our Families.**

**Objectives.** Learn to talk about our families, learn how to get others to talk about their families, and to know more about each other.

**Activity 1.** Introduce vocabulary related to family to the class.

mother	niece/nephew	spouse(s)
father	grandparent(s)	husband/wife
sibling(s)	grandfather	descendent
sister/brother	grandmother	ancestor
cousin	uncle/aunt	

**Activity 2.** Tell students to write about their family. Each student writes six words that he/she associates with the idea of family life.

**Activity 3.** Distribute Sheet 3-1. Ask students to draw a family tree of their family.



Tell them to write down at least three things about each family member. Give their full names, personality, appearance, interests, occupation, important events in life, etc.

Activity 4. Have students form pairs and show each other his/her family tree. Then ask each other about his/her family. Distribute Sheet 3-2 as an example of how to ask other people about their family members.

Activity 5. Distribute Sheet 3-3 to the class. Ask the students whether they know all the words in the sheet. If not, explain the meaning to the class. Have the students write a paper about their families. Tell the students to write as much as they can about their families in fifteen minutes. Tell them to then spend five minutes reading what they write. Share it with a partner. Then have them write five sentences about their partners' family.

Activity 6. Have students answer the following questions.

1. Talk about a family member who is very different from you.

Tell the class about his or her likes and wants and how they are different from your own.

2. Have the students write down things they know about their grandparents or great grandparents. Did they give you any advice? Did they tell you what they have experienced when they were young? How about your parents? Did they give you a lot of advice (such as schoolwork, health, friends, clothing, safety, getting married, future work, good manners, etc)? What was the best advice you've ever received? Have the students share with the class.

3. Write the name of someone in your family (a brother, sister, uncle, aunt,

cousin, etc) whom:

1. You love \_\_\_\_\_.
2. You don't like \_\_\_\_\_.
3. You admire \_\_\_\_\_.
4. You think needs help \_\_\_\_\_.
5. You would like to spend a week alone with \_\_\_\_\_.

Give reasons why you feel the way you do about them. Ask your classmates to explain their feelings. Give examples.

Activity 7. Distribute Assessment Sheet 3-4 to the students. Have them compare American families with Japanese families. How is an American family different from a Japanese family? Give some examples.

#### **Lesson 4: Making a Date**

Objectives. To learn about how to start and maintain social relationships with others, to know more about the social customs of dating in the US, and compare them with those in Japan. To learn how to have a conversation with people in general.

Activity 1. Distribute Sheet 4-1 to the students. After reading the sheet, have the students answer these questions.

Activity 2. Give Sheet 4-2 and 4-3 to the students. These are examples of dialogue of how to start a conversation and make a date. First, explain the meaning of new vocabulary to the students. Then ask the students what they think about the way people start a conversation and make a date in the handouts. Is making a date different in their country? If so, how is it different? Have students write down the customs in their

country. Sheet 4-2 includes questions and activities. Ask students to work on these questions and activities.

Activity 3(1). Tell students to write a dialogue and make a date starting with the following openings. Answer yes or no to the question.

Do you have any plans for Saturday?

What are you doing over the weekend?

Are you going to be busy this evening?

I was thinking of going to a movie tonight. Would you like to come?

Are you doing anything tonight?

Are you free Friday night?

I'm going to a play with a group of friends. Would you like to join us?

To say Yes!

That'd be very nice.

I'd love to.

That's a great idea.

To say No!

Sorry, I'm afraid I'm busy tonight.

Sorry, I've got to baby-sit tonight.

Tonight's a problem. What about tomorrow night?

It's really nice of you to ask, but...

I'd really like to, but the problem is...

Thanks for the offer, but I'm afraid not. (Jones & Von Bayer, 1983)

Activity 3(2). The teacher tells students to try to make date with the people one has contacted earlier. One way to start a conversation might be: Oh, it's nice to see you again. How are you? Students need to know that if he/she becomes too friendly or emotional, the person he/she is talking to may think he/she wants a favor or that he/she is not sincere. If she/he is not friendly enough, he/she will sound rude. Have them try several times to start a conversation with different partners until they feel comfortable with the expressions.

(Jones & Bayer, 1983)

Activity 4. Distribute Sheet 4-4 to the students. Read with the whole class, so that the students understand. After reading Sheet 4-4, give Sheet 4-5 to the students. Have them form pairs, and discuss the answers. When students are finished, ask the students for answers, making adjustment to the answers if necessary. After the class finishes reading Sheet 4-4, explain further about American dating customs. (for example, teens usually introduce boyfriend/girlfriend to their parents when he/she shows up, or they have curfews, etc). Tell students to ask questions about Sheet 4-4 if they have any.

Activity 5. Read Sheet 4-6 to the class. Then tell students to make groups and discuss the answers. Write each question on the board. Give enough time to the students so that they can copy all the questions. Tell them to write down the answers next to the questions in their notes.

Activity 6. Tell the students it is a good idea to write to magazines when they have questions about dating customs. Many American newspapers and magazines have advice columns that answer letters from people asking for advice on love problems or other problems. Distribute a Sample Letter 4-7 to the students. Have them read the

sheet, and discuss what the woman should do. Also, some other problems are written at the bottom of the sheet. Have the students make groups of 3 or 4 people and discuss the problems. When they are finished, ask the class for answers and find out the best possible solutions.

**Activity 7.** Distribute Sheet 4-8 to the students to find out what qualities they want a boyfriend/girlfriend to have when they choose him/her. After students finish, have them make pairs and discuss why it is important for your boyfriend/girlfriend to have that quality.

**Activity 8.** Distribute Assessment Sheet 4-9 to the students. Have the students make pairs and discuss the answers about social customs of dating in the United States. Tell them to use words such as “often,” “usually,” “some,” or “most”. If they don’t know the answer, tell them to ask.

### **Lesson 5: Talking about Travel/Vacations**

**Objectives.** Learn to talk with people about travel/vacation plans, letting them know what you want to do or where you want to go. Learn about U. S. big cities and make a reasonable travel plan.

**Activity 1.** Repeat to the students a good memory of your travel experiences. Then, students team up into pairs and explain to the partner his/her unforgettable travel experiences. At the end, each student writes down his/her experiences in detail. (When did it happen? Where did you go? Who did you go with? Did you have a good time?) Start with the following sentence. “The nicest vacation I’ve ever taken was when I.....”.

**Activity 2.** Give Sheet 5-1 to the students and tell them to work on the answers

themselves. Once they are finished, have them form pairs and tell each other about his/her dream trip. Also, have them write down five important things when they choose ideal vacation spot.

Activity 3. Have the students form pairs, and discuss the following questions. The students can draw answers from their own experiences.

What do people from your country like to do for vacations? When (what time of year) do people take vacations? Do people travel as a family? What kinds of accommodations are available? What famous tourist traps are there in your country? What is the most common way to travel? Have you ever had problems with airlines? What happened? What did you do?

Example: A : How do you like to travel?

B: By air. My home is too far away for me to drive or go by ship.

A: Where do you like to go on your vacation?

B: Florida. It's warm enough for me to swim.

Activity 4. Distribute Sheet 5-2 to the students. It is about San Francisco. Have them read it carefully. Before reading Sheet 5-2, have the students practice the new words. After they finish reading, have them answer the questions for understanding. When they finish, give Sheet 5-3. It is a letter Sofia wrote to her family about Chicago. First, introduce new vocabulary words to the students, then read it. The teacher also tells more about Chicago. After that, have the students work on the questions for understanding.

Activity 5. Distribute Sheet 5-4 to the students. Tony and Amy are looking forward

to visiting San Francisco on June 12. They are going to spend three nights there. Their budget is up to 350 US dollars per person.

1. Which airline companies are available on the tour for Tony and Amy?
2. Which hotels can Tony and Amy stay within the budget?
3. They plan to have dinner at those restaurants in Chinatown every night. Which hotel has the most convenient locations?
4. For the three-night tour for which they applied, Tony and Amy can make selections among the exciting activities written on the sheet. Have students form pairs, and decide which activities they both want to join. They can choose each one from category A and B ( a dinner at one of the good restaurants)
5. They want to visit Chinatown and Golden Gate Bridge while they are in San Francisco. Since there is no tour, they decide to rent a car. Is car rental available? If so, what is the name of the car rental company and how much do they have to pay for three days?

Activity 6. Tell students to check the 3 cities you would like to visit.

(     ) Shanghai,  
China

(     ) San Francisco,  
USA

(     ) Rome,  
Italy

(     ) Montreal,  
Canada

(     ) Nairobi,  
Kenya

(     ) Vienna,  
Austria

(     ) Cairo,  
Egypt

(     ) Mexico city,  
Mexico

(     ) Bombay,  
India

Have students tell their partner about the cities they have checked. The following is useful language.

Why would you like to visit \_\_\_\_\_?

What would you like to do in \_\_\_\_\_?

What would you like to see in \_\_\_\_\_?

I'd like to visit \_\_\_\_\_ because \_\_\_\_\_.

**Activity 7** (for Assessment ). Students want to visit one of the cities listed above, but need to find out more information about each one before making a choice. Tell students to ask their partner questions about:

the weather                      the average price of a hotel room

popular food                      the average price of dinner for two

popular tourist sights

### **Lesson 6: Making Plans**

**Objectives.** Learn to make good future plans and be able to talk about future plans with others.

**Activity 1.** Give students Sheet 6-1. Have them make plans for the month. Are there any special events or holidays coming up? Is there anything you need to do this month? Have the students write down important things in detail, then ask their partners about his/her plans.

**Activity 2.** Distribute Sheet 6-2. Read the sheet with the whole class. After one is sure that the students understand the dialogue, practice new vocabulary. Have them form pairs and practice new words.

**Activity 3.** Distribute Sheet 6-3 to the students. Ask other students about Tom's future plans. First, ask a yes/no question. Then use the words in parenthesis to ask



another question.

**Activity 4.** Give Sheet 6-4 to the students. Have them form pairs, and ask another student about his/her plans for the immediate future. Assign writing about the immediate future to the students. Questions to be answered are : What do you want to be when you grow up? Which school do you want to go? Where do you want to live? Do you want to get married? etc..

**Activity 5.** Give Sheet 6-5 to the students. Have them form pairs, and ask a partner about his or her plans for this weekend. When they are finished, have each tell the interesting things their partner is planning for the next weekend.

**Activity 6.** Give Assessment Sheet 6-6 to the students. Tell them to find an adult whom they know, and ask him/her these questions.

## **Unit 2 Group Travel Plans**

This unit includes lessons about group travel plans which will improve Japanese students' proficiency in English. The unit will help students to be a good speaker of English by 1) talking about how to get around, 2) sightseeing, 3) expressing preferences, 4) discussing pro's and con's, 5) talking about expenses, and 6) staying at a hotel. After completing this unit, students will be able to express their thoughts and opinions more clearly when they go traveling with their friends, and also will be able to have a great time during their stay.

### **Lesson 1: Getting Around**

**Objectives.** Learn how to get around. Learn about simple transportation from one place to another.

Activity 1. Distribute Sheet 7-1 to the students. After reading the sheet, explain to the students about transportation situations in the U.S. What kind of public transportation is available? Which one is the most convenient? Discuss in class.

Activity 2 Give Sheet 7-2 to the students. Have them form pairs, and read each part. When this is finished, have the students practice making a reservation.

Activity 3. Hand Sheet 7-3 to the students. In the dialogue, a man is calling a travel agency. Have the students form pairs, and practice the dialogue, taking turns reading.

Activity 4. Distribute Sheet 7-4 to the students. These are timetables. Have them look at the timetables carefully, and answer the question.

Activity 5. Have the students take a look at the advertisement in Sheet 7-5. Have them answer the questions about the cab company.

Activity 6. Have the students read Sheet 7-6 to the class. Explain transportation systems in major cities.

Activity 7. Distribute Assessment Sheet 7-7 to the students. Have them fill in the blanks.

## **Lesson 2: Sightseeing.**

Objectives. Learn how to find out what's going on by using the newspaper. Ask about what there is to do, reading ads about concerts and other event.

Activity 1. Distribute Sheet 8-1 to the students. Read the sheet to the students, explaining ways to find out things to do in cities. After students understand the sheet, have them answer the questions.

Activity 2. Explain English expressions concerning how to ask advice about what

there is to do. The examples are as follows. Have the students choose a partner and practice. Have them talk about such things as concerts, movies, sports events, art shows, museums, zoos, excursions, tours, restaurants, places to go dancing, skiing, swimming and shopping, and a place to buy running shoes in or near their town. Point out the sights they should definitely see.

Excuse me, but I'm new in this town.

Do you have any idea where I can find...?

Do you know where I can buy(find)...?

Could you give me some advice on...?

I was wondering if you knew...

Could you tell me where...?

Would you mind giving me some advice about...?

Do you know anything about...?

#### Answers

Yes

No

Sure.

I'm sorry. I don't.

Okay.

I wish I could help you, but I really don't know.

I'd love to.

I'm really sorry I can't help.

I'm not sure. Let me check.

Activity 3. Distribute Sheet 8-2 to the students. You and your friends are spending a day in Washington, D. C. There are many popular tourist attractions--too many for one day. Check the five sights you would most like to see and why.

Activity 4. Have the students form pairs, and talk about the capital city of their country. Is it similar to Washington, D. C? Is it an old or young city? What is its history? Compare the city they are in now to this capital city.

Activity 5. Look at the map of New York in Sheet 8-3. Have students plan an eight-hour sightseeing day there. Decide which places they will visit and how much time they will spend at each place. Fill in the chart below.

Example	Place	Time
	<u>Union Square</u>	<u>20 minutes</u>
	_____	_____
	_____	_____

Activity 6 (Assessment). Have students circle the places they will visit on the map of New York. What is the most timesaving order in which to visit them? On the map, have students number the places in the order in which they will visit them. Have them take turns giving directions from one place to the next.

### **Lesson 3: Expressing Preferences**

Objectives. Learn to let people know what you want to do. Give reasons for what you like or dislike.

Activity 1. Tell the following to the students. When finished, explain to the students examples of ways to agree or disagree with others.

When people express preferences, likes and dislikes in casual conversations, they use informal language. People usually support their preferences by adding reasons for liking and disliking something. People let others know if they feel the same way by

expressing their own likes and dislikes. This can sometimes be a way of agreeing or disagreeing.

Agreeing with someone's preferences.

Ok	Yes, of course	That really sounds good to me.	
Sure	I'd be glad to	I couldn't agree more	That's a great idea.
I agree with you.	I think so, too.	You are (That's) right!	
That's exactly what I was thinking.	I'd go along with that idea.		
That's exactly how I feel	There is no doubt about it		
Absolutely!	Definitely!	That's my opinion, too	

Disagreeing with someone's preferences.

I don't think so.	That's not what I had in mind.	
I'm not too crazy about it.	I don't like it, either.	
I see your point but...	I must say I'd rather...	
I'm sorry, but...	I can't accept that.	
You haven't convinced me that...	On the other hand...	
I'd rather not.	True (Yes), but...	I disagree with you
That's an interesting point of view but...		
I disagree with what you are saying	I respect your opinion but I think...	
No way.	I can't do that	I see what you mean but....
That's a very good idea, but...	I see your point but...	
I don't think I quite agree	It all sounds quite interesting but...	
I'm not sure if I agree with you completely on...		

I understand what you are saying, but in my opinion..

I hate to disagree with you, but I believe....

Activity 2. Have students talk to their partner about what they like or what you like to do. Then have them explain why they like it (doing it). Also, have them tell their partner what they don't like or what they don't like to do. Explain why. Whether you agree or disagree with their partner, they need to give him/her reasons why they do or don't agree.

Useful language

I like (to)....

I don't like (to)...

I prefer \_\_\_\_\_ , because \_\_\_\_\_.

Agreeing with someone's likes.

Me, too.

So, do I (am I).

I do, too (I am).

Agreeing with someone's dislikes.

Neither do I.

I don't either (I am not, either).

Nor am I.

Activity 3. Distribute Sheet 9-1 to the students. Have them practice expressing an opinion and then agreeing with it.

Activity 4. Distribute Sheet 9-2 to the students. Have them practice expressing an opinion and disagreeing with it.

Activity 5. Distribute Sheet 9-3 to the students. Have them complete the dialogue.

Activity 6. Distribute Assessment Sheet 9-4 to the students. Have them make pairs, and practice the dialogs. After they finish, answer the questions.

#### **Lesson 4: Discussing Pros and Cons**

**Objectives.** To be able to state one's opinions clearly, and support one's opinions.

**Activity 1.** To find out what other person thinks about a topic, we often ask questions like "What do you think about \_\_\_\_\_?" Here are some beginnings of questions about other people's opinions. Have students make pairs and ask each other questions they want to know.

Are you opposed to....?

in favor of...?

What do you think about...?

What's your opinion about/on...?

How do you feel about...?

I'd be interested to know your thoughts on...

Expressing opinions (responding)

I think (believe, feel) that...      It seems to me that.....

In my opinion.....      As I see it....

Personally (frankly), I think.....

**Activity 2.** When we discuss pros and cons with someone, we let him/her know whether we are either for or against his/her opinion first. Then we offer a reason why we think that way. The following is some expressions which can be used when discussing pros and cons (Sheet 10-1). Have students answer the questions using the expressions.

**Activity 3.** Have students make groups of four to five. Have them choose a topic from below and discuss using the expressions introduced in Activity 1 and 2.

1. A six-month yacht trip around the world.
2. A three-week mountain-climbing vacation in the Himalayas.
3. Go scuba-diving and feed sharks in the water.
4. A one-month safari in Africa.
5. A two-month drive from Sweden to Greece.

Example: A: What do you think about a six-month trip around the world?

B: I think it will be really exciting. I can enjoy being in the sea all day long.

Activity 4. Distribute Sheet 10-2 to students. Have them make groups and discuss pros and cons regarding the topics given.

Activity 5. Have students make pairs, and practice Sheet 10-3. After they are finished, have them discuss pros and cons about the topics given.

Activity 6. Distribute Assessment Sheet 10-4 to the students. Have them make pairs, and act out the dialogues using appropriate tone of voice and gestures. When they are finished, have them answer the questions.

### **Lesson 5: Travel Expenses**

Objectives. To be able to plan a reasonable travel budget

Activity 1. Tell students to plan a budget for the next time they go out somewhere (movie, shopping, amusement park, etc...). They can plan a trip to the zoo with their classmates, for example. Then have them talk about how much they should bring, being careful not to spend too much, and plan a budget (Sheet 11-1).

Activity 2. Have them make groups of four to five and decide where they want to



go and what they want to do for a vacation. Then plan a budget including transportation, accommodation, meals, and other expenses. Ask travel agencies about the packages if necessary. Then write down the details in Sheet 11-2.

Activity 3. Distribute Sheet 11-3 to students. Have them take roles and practice the dialogue.

Activity 4. Have students think about the trip they recently made. Have them remember the item on which they spent most of their money in Sheet 11-4. Then have them think about alternative budget plans which would have been better. Have them guess how they could have spent the money.

Activity 5. Distribute Sheet 11-5 to students. Have them find each word.

Activity 6. Distribute Assessment Sheet 11-6 to students. Directions: You are going to visit New Orleans for one week with your friends. You already applied to a travel package for which you have to pay \$1,200. This includes round-trip airfare, hotels, and meals. Try to figure out how long it takes for you to save the money. Write down your monthly expenses. Remember, you need money for miscellaneous, and presents for your friends/family.

## **Lesson 6: Staying At a Hotel**

Objectives. Learn how to find places to stay. Learn how to make reservations over the phone.

Activity 1. Distribute Sheet 12-1. It is about how to find places to stay. Read with the whole class. Then have them write down the ways to find places to stay when they have just arrived in the US.

Activity 2. Explain to the students the following words.

People who work at hotels

desk clerk

maid

switchboard operator

bellman

room service waiter

These are typical rooms in hotels. Why do people go there and what is special about each place?

front desk

meeting room

piano bar

lobby

game room

elevator

suite

gift shop

Activity 3. Have students form pairs and practice conversation in Sheet 12-2.

Pretend you need to find a place to stay. After they are finished, have them answer the questions.

Activity 4. Distribute Sheet 12-3 to students. Have them read the conversations and answer the questions.

Activity 5. Hand Sheet 12-4 to the class. Have them look at the ad and answer the questions.

Activity 6. Hand Assessment Sheet 12-5 to the class. Have them form pairs and act out the dialogue. When finished, have them take turns. Then answer the questions.

**APPENDIX:  
LESSON MATERIALS**

1-1

Jim: Nice day, isn't it?

Brian: Oh, it sure is. I love being here, especially on a day like today.

Jim: I know. I feel the same way, too. Anyway, do you live near here?

Brian: Oh, I live 5 minutes from here.

Jim: That's not bad. I live 15 minutes from here. I decided to come here because I wanted to enjoy being in the nature. This park has many kinds of flowers and trees, and you can hear birds singing.

Brian: Yeah, it's beautiful. For me, it is important to spend time relaxing like this in the park. My job is very hectic everyday, so I do enjoy spending time here. I can forget all the busy city life styles.

Jim: You must be a pretty busy man. May I ask you what you do?

Brian: Oh, I work for a computer company named J-Wave where I program new computer software for the computer market. These days the demands for computer software are expanding so we have a difficult time keeping up with the customer's needs.

Jim: Wow, I see...

**Examples to Start a Conversation**

How do you do? My name is John.

It's nice meeting you. My name is....

How are you doing?

It is my pleasure meeting you.

Let me introduce myself. My name is...

Hi! How are you? My name is.... What's your name?

**Dialogue**

Joe: Hi! Chen. Haven't seen you for a while. Do you live around here?

Chen: Oh, Hi, Joe. It's been ages, hasn't it? I just moved in. Actually, I'm having a party tonight at my new apartment with some of my friends. The party starts at 6:00.

Joe: Oh, it is very kind of you to invite me. Should I bring anything?

Chen: Oh, no. Just bring yourself. The address is 372 Mason Avenue.

Joe: OK, then, I'll see you at 6:00 pm at your house.

Chen: OK. See you later.

1-3

- (1)
- |                     |                         |
|---------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. at a bus stop    | 6. in a bank            |
| 2. In an elevator   | 7. in a supermarket     |
| 3. in a parking lot | 8. in a doctor's office |
| 4. on a street      | 9. at a park            |
| 5. on the subway    | 10. in a store          |

(Hynes & Baichman, 1989)

- (2)
- |                           |  |
|---------------------------|--|
| shake hands               | kiss her/him on the cheek                                    |
| use his/her first name    | find out what his/her interests are                          |
| ask what his/her job is   | give him/her your business card                              |
| buy him/her a drink       | touch him/her on the arm                                     |
| ask how much he/she earns | stand very close to him/her                                  |
| look at him/her directly  | hug him/her when you say good-bye                            |
| smile and laugh a lot     | put your hands in your pockets and<br>lean against the wall. |
| bow to him/her            |  |

### Making Small Talk

1. Are these statements true or false? Write T or F. Then discuss answers.

a. You must begin small talk with a question, not a statement.

b. \_\_\_\_ Strangers usually expect you to agree with them when  
you are making small talk.

c. \_\_\_\_ A good way to respond to small talk is to add more  
information.

2. Discuss these questions.

a. Have you made small talk with a stranger recently? What did you talk about? Did  
the stranger respond the way you expected?

b. Do you think there is more small talk between strangers in  
English-speaking countries than in other countries? Why?

(Hynes & Baichman, 1989)

A husband wife are talking about what they want to do on the weekend.

H: Do you want to go the Bears game this weekend with the Thompsons?

W: You know I don't like football. And besides, I don't like Fred Thompson very much either.

H: Come on, honey. Everyone likes football but you. And we all really want to see the game. The Thompsons have 4 great seats on the 50 yard line.

W: Oh, all right. But next weekend I want to go to that new movie at the Biograph.

H: I hope it's not another one of those science fiction movies. I don't want to sit through two hours of space wars again.

W: Don't worry. You'll like this one. It's about a football player.

(Elbaum & Peman, 1989)



**Example:** swim (where)

**A:** Do you like to swim?

**B:** Yes, I do.

**A:** Where do you like to swim?

**B:** I like to swim in the ocean.

play volleyball (where)                      Chinese food (what kind of food)

go bowling (where) (who ... with)    eat in restaurants (where)

tennis (why) (which sports)              talk on the phone

watch sports on TV (which) (when) saw (what...make)

soccer (...to watch or play)              take pictures (what...of)

play chess ( who...with) (what other games)

the American way of life (why)              cook (how often)

go shopping (when)

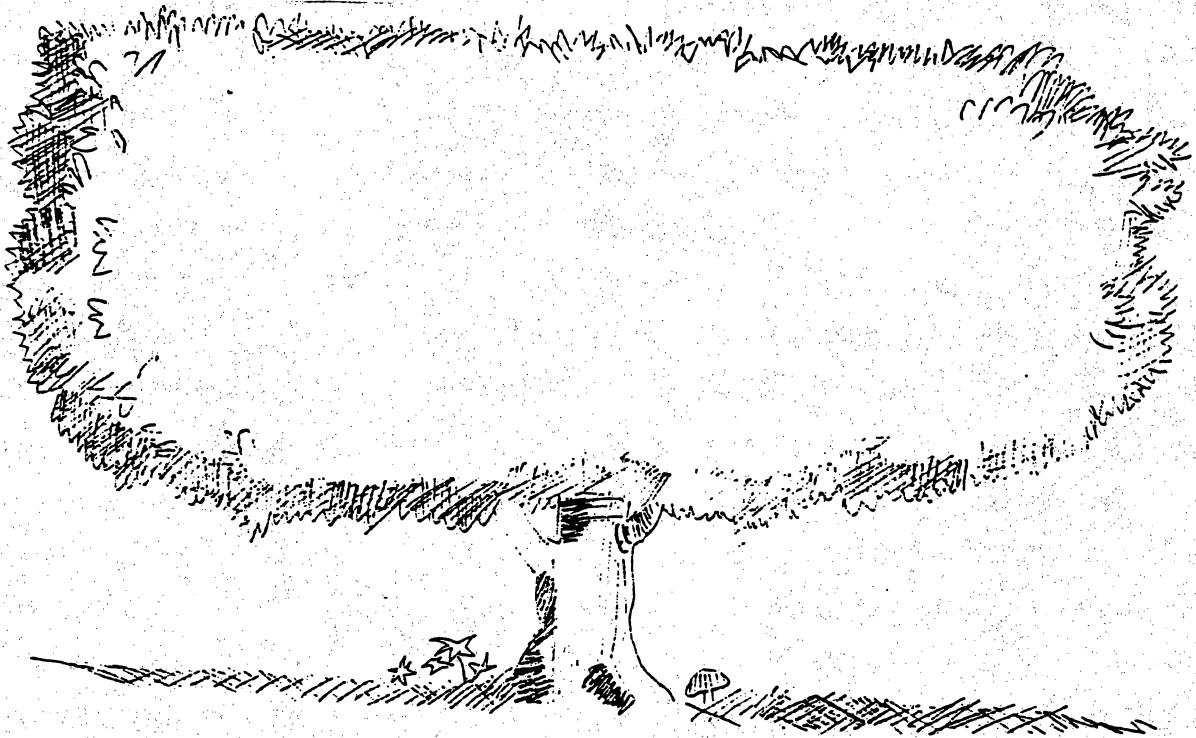
dress up (what...wear) (when)

travel (when)

stay in hotels (why)

write letters (why)                      (Elbaum & Peman, 1989)

Write your own family tree.



Their names

---



---



---

Tell at least three things about them.

---



---



---

These are examples of how to ask questions when you need to get more information about other people's family members.

Could you tell me some more about...

Would you mind telling me more about...

I'd like to know more about...

What I'd like to know is...

Sorry to keep after you, but could you tell me...

How many brothers and sisters have you got?

What are they called?

How old is/are your...?

What do they do?

Are you married or single?

What do your parents do?

What about your cousins/uncles/grandparents?

Where do you live?

Do you have any children?

How many sons and daughters do you have?

How many aunts and uncles do you have on your mother's side?

Do you have a lot of cousins?

Hello, my name is Lisa. I am fourteen years old. I live with my parents in the suburb of Richmond. I have two brothers and one sister. My brother Mike, who is 16 years-old, goes to high school. He plays baseball and he is a member of the school baseball team. The other brother Steve, who is seven years-old, is first grade in elementary school. He likes math and wants to be a Cardiologist. My sister Patricia, who is nine years-old, is third grade in elementary school. She likes swimming. She practices swimming everyday after school at a school gym. She wants to be in Olympics someday. My father works for American Airlines. He is a pilot. He flies to all over the world. My mom is a housewife. She stays home and takes care of me, my brothers and my sister. During weekends, we like to go on a picnic to a mountain near our house. It's very beautiful. We enjoy beautiful sceneries and air. I like spending time with my family.

## Assessment Sheet

The following statistics are about Americans.

Sixty five percent of American families own a house.

Seventy four percent of Americans live in urban areas.

Twenty six percent of American children live with only one parent.

Sixteen percent of Americans have a college degree.

Seventy five percent of today's teenagers finish high school.

Twelve percent of Americans are over 65 years old.

Fifty percent of American women are working or looking for work.

The average American moves 14 times in his or her life.

The average life expectancy is 74 (70 for men, 78 for women).

The median age is 32 (half the people are older, half are younger).

**Discussion**

Complete the statements in as many different ways as you can:

1. Most American families \_\_\_\_\_, but most families from my country \_\_\_\_\_.
2. Most American college students \_\_\_\_\_, but most college students from my country \_\_\_\_\_. (Elbaum & Peman, 1989)

American high school students often go out on dates.

Boys usually ask girls for dates, but sometimes girls ask boys out.

Teenagers often go on double dates. Two couples, two boys and two girls, go out together.

Friday and Saturday evenings are the most common times for dates.

Movies, parties, and school dances are popular places to go on dates.

Most teenagers' parents like to meet their child's date before the teens go out.

Parents usually tell the young people what time they must be home from their date.

For most American teenagers, dating is a fun part of growing up.

### **Questions for understanding**

Ask the students these questions.

1. What is double-dating?
2. When and where do teenagers usually go on dates?
3. What part do parents play in dating?

R: "Hello, Nancy, this is Robert. I'm in your history class."

N: "Hi, Robert. I know who you are."

R: "I'm sorry I didn't get a chance to talk to you at school today."

N: "Oh, really? Did you want to tell me something?"

R: "Actually, I wanted to ask if you would go to the school dance with me on Friday."

N: "I'd like to go, Robert, but my parents won't let me single-date."

R: "That's O.K. We could go with Rick Harsh and Jeanie Mendoza. You know them, don't you?"

N: I know Rick. He is in my English class, and my parents know his parents."

R: "Great! Can we pick you up at 7:30 on Friday? The dance starts at 8:00."

N: "That's fine, but I think my mother would like to meet you first."

R: "No problem. Why don't I drive you home from school tomorrow? I can meet her there."

N: "That sounds good. Thanks for calling, Robert. I'll see you tomorrow."

### **Questions for Understanding**

Ask the students these questions

1. Why is Robert calling Nancy?
2. When is the school dance?
3. What must Robert do before the dance?
4. Who are Rick Harsh and Jeanie Mendoza?

### **Activities**

Assign these activities to small groups.

1. Make a list of good places to go on a date.
2. Make a list of dating rules that teenagers should follow.
3. Conduct a survey among the students in your school to determine the favorite place to go on a date.



A: Excuse me, do you mind if I sit here?

B: No, of course not. I'll just move my coat.

A: Thanks. Nice day, isn't it?

B: Yeah, it really is.

A: Would you like a cigarette?

B: Oh, thanks.

A: You might find them pretty strong.

B: Oh that's all right. I like strong ones.

(Jones & Von Bayer, 1983)

### Facts about American Dating Customs.

American high school students often go out on dates. Boys usually ask girls for dates, but sometimes girls ask boys out. Some boys and girls may start dating or going out as early as thirteen or fourteen years old. That means they will go somewhere alone or with other friends without any adults along. Later when they can drive (about sixteen or seventeen), it is acceptable for a boy and a girl to go out together in a car.

Some people feel more comfortable when they go out with a group of people than they do when they are just with one person. Teenagers often go on double dates, and two couples go out together. In the US, people tend to date a lot before they are ready to settle down. Dating does not mean that the boy and the girl will get married. On the contrary, people think it is a good idea for young adults to go out with different members of the opposite sex. That way they will meet different kinds of people and learn what kind of person they really want to marry.

Some couples who are in their twenties or older may share an apartment and “live together” before they get married. They think this helps to see whether a marriage might work. But still many parents are opposed to young people living together before marriage.

(Dresser, 1993)

### Cultural Exchange

Write down the answers to the questions below and share your answers with your classmates. Give answers to the situation given it happens in the United States and in your country.

1. Can an unmarried male and female go out alone together? Beginning at what age?
2. Can a male visit a female's home without their being engaged?
3. Can a woman date someone other than the man she will marry?
4. Must parents approve of their daughter's date?
5. How do young adults find marriage partners? (friends? family? dating services? advertisements? other?)
6. What is the usual age difference for an engaged couple?
7. What is a typical age at which women marry? What is a typical age for men?

In the United States, some women feel comfortable asking men out on dates, but it's still difficult for many women to ask a man out. Is it common in your country for a woman to ask a man out on a date? If a woman asks a man out, should she choose where they will go and what they will do? If a woman asks a man out, should she pay for everything? Do you think that it is important to spend a lot of money if you want to impress someone? Is it hard for you to say no to someone who asks you out? When do you pay your own way when you go out with someone? If you are a man, what would you do if a woman offered to pay for herself? If you are a woman, when would you offer to share the bill with your date? Have you ever been to a really great party? Where and when was it?

(Dresser, 1993)

Dear Broken Hearts Club:

I am a twenty-five-year-old single woman who works in a bank. I am very happy with my job. I like going out on weekends with my co-workers. We go shopping, to the movies, and eat out. My problem is that I am the only one of my brothers and sisters who is not married. My parents are very unhappy about this. They believe that all women should get married and have children, but I am not interested. I would rather just have a career. And the bank is offering me a promotion.

My parents are against this. They want me to marry a friend of theirs---an older businessman. He would like that too, but I just don't care for him at all. My parents are pressuring me into a marriage with this man and I am torn between pleasing my parents and pleasing myself. What should I do?

#### Other problems

1. My boyfriend and I want to get married but my family hates his long hair.
2. I don't know how to meet young women even though I am handsome.
3. Men are just interested in me for my looks; they don't take me seriously as a person.
4. I love my boyfriend, but I don't know how to tell him he needs to take showers more often.
5. I have fallen in love with the man engaged to my sister and I think he loves me, too.
6. My wife would rather spend time with her friends than with me.

7. My girlfriend is wonderful but I've heard that she flirts with other guys behind my back.
8. I love my girlfriend but she has a three-year-old son who she brings on all our dates.
9. My boyfriend has a bad temper and when we go out I get embarrassed by how he's always yelling at waiters, salespeople, and everyone else.
10. I'm dating a woman from another culture, and when her family gets together they don't speak my language.

(Dresser, 1993)

## The Perfect Partner

Everybody has a different idea of the ideal boyfriend or girlfriend. Put the following qualities in order of importance.

- |                               |                                      |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| A Good looks...               | F Lets you decide things...          |
| B Patience...                 | G Sexiness...                        |
| C Plenty of money...          | H Popular with your family...        |
| D Interests you both share... | I Popular with your other friends... |
| E Being tall                  | J Dresses nicely                     |

Assessment Sheet

Example: talk about their feelings

A: Do American couples often talk about their feelings?

B: Most couples do.

- |                                      |  |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| 1. hug each other                    | 8. married men wear a wedding ring                     |
| 2. kiss each other in public         | 9. married men go out with their<br>men friends        |
| 3. hold hands                        | 10. married men help their wives with<br>the housework |
| 4. touch each other when speaking    |  |
| 5. men open door for women           | 11. married men spend time with<br>children            |
| 6. have friends who are opposite sex |  |
| 7. argue in public                   | 12. married women work                                 |
|                                      | 13. married woman use their<br>husband's last name     |

(Elbaum & Peman, 1989)



### Your Ideal Vacation

What kind of vacation would you like to take? Fill in the blanks with your preferences.

Then discuss your preferences with your partner.

1. Type of vacation (for example: safari, cruise, backpacking,...)
2. Location (seaside, big city,...)
3. Countries (London, Canada,...)
4. Season or month (fall, September,...)
5. Cost (of transportation/ admission ticket/ meal/ snack).
6. A list of things to take with you (camera? umbrella? swimsuit?)
7. Activities (shopping, lying on the beach,...)
8. Clothing
9. Types of transportation
10. Accommodations (luxury hotels, campsites,...)

### Questions to ask

1. Why do you like to go there?
2. What's special about the place you want to go?
3. What kind of vacation are you going to take?
4. Where are you going to go (which country are you going to visit)?
5. When are you planning to go on vacation?
6. What are you going to do on vacation?
7. Where are you going to stay? (Hynes & Baichman, 1989)

### Visiting San Francisco

San Francisco is one of the most beautiful cities in the U.S. It is in the northern part of California. It is very **popular** among **tourists**. It has a famous Bridge called the Golden Gate bridge. This bridge is over a mile long. San Francisco is famous for its cable cars. Chinatown is one of its popular **tourist attractions**.

### Questions

Is San Francisco in California?

Is it the biggest city in California?

What is San Francisco famous for?

(Elbaum & Peman, 1989)

Chicago

The next letter is written by Sofia. Now she is visiting Chicago, she wrote a letter to her family saying how much she enjoys staying there.

Dear Family,

I really love being in Chicago. There are so many interesting things to see and do. There are **ethnic restaurants** with foods from many different countries. There are a lot of theaters with the latest movies and plays. There are good museums and concert halls. There are many **neighborhood fairs** in the summer.

There are **parades** all year around. There is always something interesting going on. There are very few boring moments.

There is a subway and an elevated train here, so transportation is fast and convenient. Sometimes there are musicians in the train stations or on the street. But there are a lot of **pickpockets**, so I have to be careful with my purse.

The weather is another thing I don't like. There's a lot of wind all the time, and in the winter there are very few sunny days. But I am having a good time here with my friends.

I hope you can visit Chicago sometime soon. I am sure you also will have a good time.

Love,

Sofia

5-3

## Chicago

### Questions for understanding

**Example:** Chicago/ an interesting city

A: Is Chicago an interesting city?

B: Yes, it is.

1. Chicago / the third largest city in the U.S.
2. It / the largest city in Illinois
3. It / not the capital of Illinois
4. It/ near Lake Michigan
5. What / the tourist attractions in Chicago
6. What / you see in summer
7. What / all year round
8. What / transportation in Chicago
9. Where / pickpocket
10. It / very cold in the winter
11. It / very windy at times

(Elbaum & Peman, 1989)

## San Francisco Trip

# Super SAN FRANCISCO

**Carmel, Monterey and 17-Mile Drive Tour.**

Drive down the coast past spectacular vistas and picturesque towns. Features stops in Old Monterey, Cannery Row, the Monterey Bay Aquarium and a shopping stop in Carmel. Motor along 17-Mile Drive with views of Seal Rocks and Cypress Point. Daily; 11 hours. (Meals not included.)

**Chinatown Dinner and San Francisco-By-**

Night Tour. Start your evening with an outstanding authentic Chinese dinner, followed by a guided walking tour of Chinatown, and ending with a spectacular night tour of the city! Nightly; 4 hours.

Dinner at Tarantino's. Enjoy excellent seafood and impeccable service at this landmark Fisherman's Wharf waterfront restaurant. Open nightly.

**OPTIONAL EXCURSION**

**Yosemite National Park.** This full-day motor-coach/rail tour features a narrated tour of the Yosemite Valley, the gold rush town of Mariposa and the majestic Half Dome, El Capitan and breathtaking Yosemite Falls. Daily; 15-1/2 hours. (Meals not included.)

**Dining Note for Options with Meals:** There may be set menus for participating restaurants.

**Sightseeing Note:** Check for exact dates and times of operation of sightseeing tours; dates and times are subject to change without notice.



SUPER SAN FRANCISCO		2-NITES		3-NITES	4-NITES	7-NITES	15-NITES
Departures		Cable Car Caper	San Francisco Sights	San Francisco Invitation	San Francisco Experience	San Francisco Week	
Hotel Bedford	01/01-03/31	125	145	253	353	583	50
	04/01-10/31	139	159	274	381	632	57
	11/01-12/31	132	152	263	366	606	54
Ramada Inn At Union Square	01/01-12/31	135	155	267	372	616	55
Handlery Union Square	01/01-03/31	139	159	274	381	632	57
	04/01-12/31	146	166	284	394	654	61
Ramada Fisherman's Wharf	01/01-04/30	147	167	286	397	659	61
	11/01-12/31	178	198	332	459	767	77
	05/01-10/31	178	198	332	459	767	77
Holiday Inn Fisherman's Wharf	01/01-03/31	152	172	293	406	675	64
	11/01-12/31	193	213	354	488	819	84
	04/01-10/31	156	176	300	415	691	66
Sheraton Fisherman's Wharf	01/01-03/31	165	185	313	433	723	70
	11/01-12/31	212	232	384	527	888	94
	06/01-10/31	212	232	384	527	888	94
Warwick Regis	01/01-04/30	158	178	303	419	698	67
	11/01-12/31	166	186	314	435	725	71
	05/01-10/31	166	186	314	435	725	71
Holiday Inn Union Square	01/01-03/31	159	179	304	421	702	67
	11/15-12/31	174	194	327	451	755	75
	04/01-11/15	174	194	327	451	755	75
The Tuscan Inn	01/01-03/31	162	182	309	427	712	69
	11/01-12/31	193	213	354	488	819	84
	04/01-10/31	193	213	354	488	819	84
Mark Hopkins Inter-Continental	01/01-03/31	190	210	351	483	811	83
	04/01-04/14	205	225	373	513	863	90
	06/16-08/31	205	225	373	513	863	90
	11/15-12/31	220	240	396	543	916	98
	04/15-06/15	220	240	396	543	916	98
Westin St Francis	09/01-11/15	246	266	434	594	1005	111
01/01-12/31		246	266	434	594	1005	111

Prices are per person, based on double occupancy. Single, triple, quad and children's rates are available on request. Prices include applicable taxes and gratuities.



PRICE PER CAR	2-DAYS	3-DAYS	4-DAYS	EXTRA DAY
1/1-7/14	71	107	143	36
7/15-8/24	86	129	171	43
8/25-12/19	71	107	143	36
12/20-12/31	86	129	171	43

Call for rental upgrades! See Terms and Conditions for details and restrictions.

## San Francisco Trip

# Super SAN FRANCISCO

Start from \$  
\$125

Features shown can be purchased separately for additional cost at time of reservation!



Follow your heart to fabulous San Francisco! Ride a tabled cable car, take in the hustle and bustle on Fisherman's Wharf, the elegance of Nob Hill, the exotic sounds and smells of Chinatown, the majesty of the Redwoods up north, Wine Country and so much more. For a quick visit or longer getaway, try SuperCities' SUPER SAN FRANCISCO!

## 2 NIGHTS CABLE CAR CAPER

- 2 nights hotel accommodations! Extra nights available.
- 1-day "Hop-on, Hop-off" cable car pass!

## 2 NIGHTS SAN FRANCISCO SIGHTS

- 2 nights hotel accommodations! Extra nights available.
- 1 choice from Category A!

## 2 NIGHTS SAN FRANCISCO INVITATION

- 3 nights hotel accommodations! Extra nights available.
- 1 choice each from Cats. A, B and C!

## 2 NIGHTS SAN FRANCISCO EXPERIENCE

- 4 nights hotel accommodations! Extra nights available.
- 1 choice each from Cats. A, B, C and D!

## 7 NIGHTS SAN FRANCISCO WEEK

- 7 nights hotel accommodations! Extra nights available.
- 1 choice each from Cats. A and B!
- 2 choices each from Cats. C and D!

Optional transfers between airport and hotel are available

## INCLUDED HIGHLIGHTS - IT'S YOUR CHOICE!

Custom-plan your SuperCities San Francisco vacation with fabulous activities, dining and entertainment! For the ultimate vacation ease, you can even make your selections after you arrive in fabulous San Francisco - it's as easy as A,B,C!

## CATEGORY A - SIGHTSEEING VIEWS

Muir Woods, Marin County, Giant Redwood Trees and Golden Gate Bridge. Journey up north through breathtaking vistas to Muir Woods National Monument. Includes a brief stop in colorful Sausalito. Daily; 3-1/2 hours.

San Francisco City Tour. See the sights from the Bay Bridge to the Golden Gate Bridge. Includes stops at Twin Peaks, Vista Point, Cliff House, Seal Rocks and Japanese Tea Garden. Daily; 3-1/2 hours.

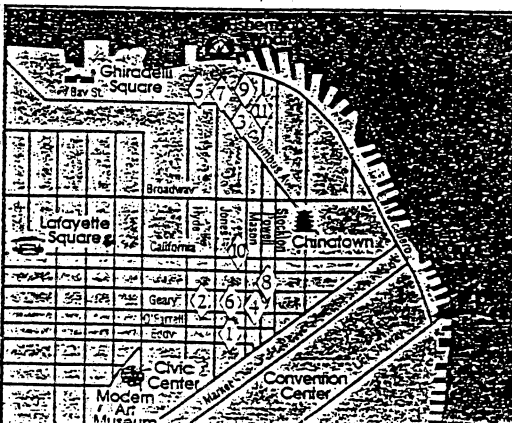
Chinatown and San Francisco-By-Night. This tour features a guided tour of this world-famous Oriental community, and ends up with a stop at Treasure Island for a panoramic view of the city. Daily; 3 hours. (Dinner not included.)

San Francisco Bay Cruise. Enjoy the best views of the city from the water. This relaxing narrated Bay tour cruises under the Golden Gate and Bay bridges, and passes Alcatraz, Angel and Treasure islands. Daily; 1 1/4 hrs.

## CATEGORY B - CITY SIGHTSEEING TOURS & LUNCH FAVORITES!

Deluxe City Tour and Bay Cruise. This comprehensive tour shows you the best San Francisco has to offer! Highlights include the City Tour sights listed in Category A, plus a cruise on the dazzling Bay. Daily; 5 hours. (Lunch not included.)

Lunch at Tarantino's. Enjoy a seafood lunch from a special menu at this world-famous Fisherman's Wharf landmark restaurant. Open daily.



- 1 Ramada Inn at Union Square
- 2 Hotel Safford
- 3 Tuscan Inn
- 4 Handlery Union Square
- 5 Holiday Inn
- 6 Fisherman's Wharf
- 7 Warwick Regis
- 8 Ramada
- 9 Fisherman's Wharf
- 10 Holiday Inn Union Square
- 11 Sheraton
- 12 Fisherman's Wharf
- 13 Westin St. Francis
- 14 Mark Hopkins
- 15 Inter-Continental

S	M	T	W	T	F	S
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30	31	

**Examples of questions to ask:**

Have you got any plans?

What are you doing...?

Have you made any plans yet?

Are you doing anything...?

Have you got anything in mind?

Have you got anything planned for...?

What are you planning to do?

Have you made any plans for...?

It's May 20. Tom is talking to a friend he meets in the street.

Friend: I hear you're making some great plans for the summer.

Tom: Yes. I'm moving to Los Angeles where my sister Mary lives. I'm starting graduate school at UCLA on June 21.

Friend: That's wonderful. **Congratulations!** Are you flying out or driving?

Tom: I'm driving. I'll need my car out there for school.

Friend: When are you leaving?

Tom: As soon as possible. I am thinking probably it is going to be on June 9. The movers are coming today to give me an **estimate**.

Friend: Do you have a place to stay out there already?

Tom: Yes. I'm staying with my sister until my apartment is available on the 17th.

Friend: Well, I wish you the best of luck, Tom. Be sure to keep in touch.

Tom: Thanks. You'll have to come out and visit me sometime.



## Vocabulary

1. When someone graduates, gets married, has a baby, find a new job, etc., we often say **congratulations** to that person.
2. He's getting an **estimate** for the move. The movers are going to tell him what they think it will cost.
3. When you **transfer**, you change to a different school.
4. She's working on a few **projects**. She's painting her house and making curtains.
5. If you **quit** your job, you leave it.
6. When you **get a promotion**, you move to a better position where you work.

**Grammar note:** Sometimes the present continuous tense is used when people talk about plans for important events in the near future. The idea is future (within a short period of time), but we use the present continuous tense.

**Example:** What are you doing this weekend?

I'm taking my sister to the movies this weekend.

(Elbaum & Peman, 1989)

**Example:** take a vacation this summer (what...do)

**A:** Is Tom taking a vacation this summer?

**B:** No, he isn't.

**A:** What is he doing?

**B:** He's going to graduate school.

1. Tom / leave for Los Angeles in May (when)
2. he / drive out to California (why)
3. he / move his furniture himself (who)
4. the movers / come before June 9 (when)
5. he / get a job in Los Angeles (why...go)
6. he / move into his new apartment on June 14 (when)

(Elbaum & Peman, 1989)

**Example:** move this semester (where) (when)

**A:** Are you moving this semester?

**B:** Yes, I am.

**A:** Where are you moving?

**B:** Closer to school.

**A:** When are you moving?

**B:** I'm moving next month.

1. go back to your country (when...leave)
2. go out of town (where) (when)
3. move soon (where) (when)
4. come back to this school next semester (why)
5. transfer to another school (where) (why)
6. go to summer school (where) (what...take)
7. buy a car soon (why)
8. get married (when)
9. get a new job (when) (why) (where)

(Elbaum & Peman. 1989)

**Example:** What are doing this weekend?

go out of town (where) (why)

**A:** Are you going out of town?

**B:** Yes, I am.

**A:** Where are you going?

**B:** I'm going to New York.

**A:** Why are you going there?

**B:** To visit some friends.

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 1. go out of town (when...leave) (where) | 10. work on a special project (what)      |
| 2. have a party (when) (who...invite)    | 11. do your laundry (where) (when)        |
| 3. go to a party (where) (when)          | 12. go to church (when) (where)           |
| 4. visit friends (who) (when)            | 13. work overtime (when) (why) (how long) |
| 5. someone / visit you (who) (when)      |   |
| 6. eat out (where) (who...go with)       |   |
| 7. go to a concert (what convert) (when) |   |
| 8. go to the movies (when)               |   |
| 9. rent a movie (what)                   | (Elbaum & Peman, 1989)                    |

# Assessment Sheet

Ask an adult about his or her plans for the immediate future.

**Example:** move this year (when)

**A:** Are you moving this year?

**B:** Yes, I am.

**A:** When are you moving?

**B:** Next October.

1. move (when) (where) (why)
2. go out of town (when) (where)
3. have a party soon (when) (why )
4. take a vacation (where...go)
5. retire this year (why) (when)
6. quit your job (why)
7. go to my country (when)
8. get a promotion (what kind)
9. get another degree (what) (when)
10. teach summer school (why) (what courses)
11. change careers soon (why) (what...plan) (Elbaum & Peman, 1989)

### Getting Around

There are three ways to get from city to city without a car. In some places, you can take Amtrak, the national passenger rail service. Or you can take a bus. Greyhound and Trailways are the largest long distance coach companies, and both of them offer monthly passes. And, of course, you can fly. There are dozens of airlines, both regional and national. Prices are not regulated, so airlines can make special offers that are sometimes cheaper than the train. There are also shuttle and commuter flights between some major cities that are close to each other.

Getting around a city on public transportation is generally not as easy as it is in most other countries, but it *is* possible. Only a few cities have subways but most towns of 50,000 or more have some kind of city bus service.

If you can't get where you want to by bus or subway, you can always take a cab. Although taxis are expensive, they are convenient. In many cities it is almost impossible to stop a cab on the street. It's easier to call a taxi company listed in the Yellow Pages and ask them to send a cab to your door. The meter will show the amount you have to pay. The driver will usually expect a tip of at least 10 %. In New York, cabs are everywhere on the streets, and cabbies expect a tip of 15%.

(Church & Moss, 1983)

This woman is at a ticket window in New York's Grand Central Station.

Clerk: Can I help you?

Jenny: Yes, I'd like some information about trains to Chicago.

Clerk: Okay. What would you like to know?

Jenny: Well, how many are there per day?

Clerk: One via Pittsburgh leaving at 2:45 pm. and one via Buffalo at 6:45 mp.

Jenny: How long does it take to get there?

Clerk: The Broadway---that's the one that goes through Pittsburgh--takes about eighteen hours, but the Lake Shore takes a little longer.

Jenny: I see...What about eating and sleeping arrangements?

Clerk: Both trains have dining cars and snack bars. And there are roomettes and slumber coaches on both of them.

Jenny: Well, uh, what are roomettes and slumber coaches?

Clerk: They both sleep one or two people, but the roomette has a toilet and wash basin. It costs more, too. Are you ready to make a reservation?

Jenny: Uh, no, I haven't decided yet.

Clerk: Well, here's a copy of the timetable. Why don't you take a look at it and let me know when you've decided....

(Church & Moss, 1983)

A Man Is Calling a Travel Agency.

Agent: Johnson's Travel. Can I help you?

Herb: Yes, I'd like some information about the special plane fares to New York I read about in your ad.

Agent: Okay, when'll you be going and how long do you plan to stay?

Herb: Well, I'd like to leave three weeks from Friday and stay about two weeks.

Agent: Then you qualify for our two-week advance purchase excursion fare. That's \$422 if you leave Friday through Sunday, and cheaper during the week.

Herb: I guess I could leave Thursday afternoon. Are there any other restrictions?

Agent: There's a minimum required stay of eight days.

Herb: Well, that's no problem. Can I get my ticket now?

Agent: Yes. If you bring some form of identification with you, that'll be all right.

Herb: Okay, thanks. I'll be there in about an hour.

Agent: Thank you. Bye.

(Church & Moss, 1983)



These are timetables of trains from New York to Chicago. Study them and the reference marks before you choose the train that best suits your needs.

### New York-Boston Albany-Cleveland Toledo-Chicago

### The Lake Shore Limited

READ DOWN		Train Number		READ UP	
48				48	
Daily		Frequency of Operation		Daily	
M Tu W Th F Sa Su		Type of Service		M Tu W Th F Sa Su	
6:45 P		(Conrail)		1:05 P	
R 7:35 P		Do New York, NY (ET) Grand Central Terminal		Ar 11:08 A	
R 8:25 P		Do Canton-Harmon, NY		Ar 11:22 A	
R 9:45 P		Do Poughkeepsie, NY (Highland)		Ar 11:08 A	
R 10:15 P		Do Rensselaer, NY (Kingston)		Ar 10:42 A	
R 10:45 P		Do Hudson, NY		Ar 10:12 A	
R 11:15 P		Do Albany-Rensselaer, NY		Ar 10:12 A	
R 11:45 P		Thru Cars Boston-Chicago		Ar 10:12 A	
M Tu W Th F Sa Su		Type of Service		M Tu W Th F Sa Su	
4:35 P		Do Boston, MA - South Sta.		Ar 3:10 P	
R 5:10 P		Do Framingham, MA		Ar 2:30 P	
R 5:45 P		Do Worcester, MA		Ar 1:55 P	
R 7:00 P		Do Springfield, MA		Ar 12:40 P	
R 8:15 P		Do Pittsfield, MA		Ar 11:20 A	
R 9:30 P		Do Albany-Rensselaer, NY		Ar 10:15 A	
R 10:10 P		Do Albany-Rensselaer, NY		Ar 9:42 A	
R 10:35 P		Do Schenectady, NY		Ar 9:09 A	
R 11:55 P		Do Utica, NY		Ar 7:55 A	
R 12:25 P		Do Syracuse, NY		Ar 7:02 A	
R 2:25 A		Do Rochester, NY		Ar 5:17 A	
R 3:35 A		Do Buffalo, NY - Depew Sta.		Ar 4:15 A	
R 5:31 A		Do Erie, PA		Ar 2:27 A	
R 7:12 A		Do Cleveland, OH - Lakeland Sta.		Ar 12:35 A	
R 7:17 A		Do Cleveland, OH		Ar 12:30 A	
R 7:50 A		Do Elyria, OH (Lorain)		Ar 12:00 A	
R 8:43 A		Do Sandusky, OH		Ar 11:20 P	
R 9:38 A		Do Toledo, OH - Central Union Tm		Ar 10:15 P	
383		Connecting Train Number		383	
R 10:30 A		Do Toledo, OH (ET)		Ar 9:30 P	
R 12:30 P		Do Detroit, MI - Detroit Sta.		Ar 7:30 P	
R 1:25 P		Do Dearborn, MI		Ar 6:57 P	
R 2:05 P		Do Ann Arbor, MI		Ar 6:22 P	
R 2:05 P		Do Jackson, MI		Ar 5:42 P	
R 2:05 P		Do Battle Creek, MI		Ar 4:48 P	
R 2:35 P		Do Kalamazoo, MI		Ar 4:18 P	
R 9:53 A		Do Toledo, OH - Central Union Tm		Ar 10:00 P	
R 10:50 A		Do Bryan, OH		Ar 9:00 P	
R 11:16 A		Do Elkhart, IN (EST)		Ar 8:40 P	
R 11:40 A		Do South Bend, IN (Miles) (EST)		Ar 8:15 P	
R 1:35 P		Do Chicago, IL - Union Sta. (CT)		Ar 4:40 P	

#### Services

— The Lake Shore Limited  
New York-Chicago-Boston-Chicago

**Sleeping Car Service** — Roomettes and bedrooms with complimentary coffee and tea served 6:30-9:30 AM. Also, economy staterooms New York-Chicago.

**Couch Service** — Reservations required except for travel locally between New York and Albany.

**Food Service** — New York-Chicago—Complete meals, sandwiches, snacks and beverages; Boston-Albany — Tray meals, sandwiches, snacks and beverages; Grand Central, Poughkeepsie, Sandusky and Bryan.

#### Reference Marks

- ① Passengers not carried locally between Dearborn and Detroit
- ② Passengers not carried locally between Dearborn and Detroit except when transferring to or from VIA Rail Canada trains at Windsor.

### New York-Philadelphia-Pittsburgh-Fort Wayne-Chicago

READ DOWN				READ			
41	47	Train Number		46	48	38	
The Broadway Limited	The Pennsylvanian	Train Name		The Broadway Limited	The Pennsylvanian	The Fort Pitt	
Daily	Daily	Frequency of Operation		Daily	Daily	Daily	
M Tu W Th F Sa Su	M Tu W Th F Sa Su	Type of Service		M Tu W Th F Sa Su	M Tu W Th F Sa Su	CT	
2 15 P	② 7 53 A	Ar	0 0	(Amtrak)			
R 2 32 P	③ 8 10 A	Do	0 0	Do New York, NY - Penn. Sta. (ET)	Ar 4 37 P	③ 10 15 P	
	③ 8 25 A	40 25		Newark, NJ - Penn. Sta.	0 4 20 P	③ 10 20 P	
R 3 18 P	④ 8 53 A	34 54		Metropark, NJ - Penn. Sta.	0 4 44 P	④ 10 44 P	
R 3 51 P	④ 9 29 A	145 90	Ar	Trenton, NJ	0 3 35 P	④ 9 12 P	
R 4 05 P	10 00 A	145 90	Ar	Philadelphia, PA - 30th St. Sta.	0 3 03 P	④ 8 10 P	
	R 10 12 A	156 98		Ardmore, PA	0 2 46 P		
R 4 30 P	R 10 27 A	176 109		Pott., PA	0 2 15 P	0 7 43 P	
③ 5 15 P	11 09 A	253 157		Lancaster, PA	③ 1 30 P	0 8 56 P	
④ 5 55 P		310 192	Ar	Harrisburg, PA (State College) —	④ 12 57 P	0 9 20 P	
④ 5 05 P	11 45 A	310 192	Do		④ 12 52 P		
				(Conrail)			
7 11 P	12 53 P	406 254		Lewistown, PA	11 38 A	5 05 P	
7 50 P	1 35 P	467 290		Huntingdon, PA	10 58 A	4 27 P	
	2 02 P	499 310		Tyrone, PA		4 00 P	
8 33 P	2 23 P	521 324		Altoona, PA	10 10 A	3 37 P	
9 37 P	3 28 P	584 363		Johnstown, PA	9 09 A	2 35 P	
	4 13 P	644 400		Gettysburg, PA		1 52 P	
10 31 P	4 25 P	680 410		Greencastle, PA	8 13 A	1 40 P	
		680 429		Pottsville, PA		0 06 P	
11 17 P	5 05 P	710 441	Ar	Pittsburgh, PA - Amtrak Sta.	7 23 A	1 05 P	
11 52 P		710 441	Do		6 48 A	5 30 P	
2 06 A		874 543		Canton, OH	4 23 A		
3 53 A		1014 630		Crestline, OH	2 40 A		
5 20 A		1129 701		Lima, OH (ET)	1 02 A		
5 28 A		1225 781		Fort Wayne, IN (EST)	10 55 P		
④ 7 40 A		1383 865		Valparaiso, IN (CT)	④ 8 55 P		
④ 8 10 A		1423 864		Gary, IN - 31st & Chase Sts.	R 3 54 P		
9 00 A		1463 909	Ar	Chicago, IL - Union Sta. (CT)	Do		

#### Services

— The Broadway Limited  
New York-Chicago

**Sleeping Cars** — Roomettes and bedrooms. Complimentary coffee and tea served 6:30-9:30 AM. Also, economy staterooms.

**Reserved Coach Service.**

**Food Service** — Dining and Lounge Service: Complete meals, sandwiches, snacks and beverages.

**Checked baggage** — handled at all stations except Pott, Lancaster, Lewistown, Huntingdon, Greencastle, Canton, Crestline, Valparaiso and Gary. Only hand baggage may be checked to or from Altoona or Johnstown.

— The Pennsylvanian  
Philadelphia-Pittsburgh (Amtrak)

— The Fort Pitt  
Altoona-Pittsburgh (Amtrak)

**Unreserved Coach Service.**

**Food Service** — Sandwiches, snacks and beverages.

**Not checked baggage** — passengers may carry hand baggage on board.

**Note** — Trains 37, 38, 39, 46 and 47 financed in part through funds made available by the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Transportation.

A—a.m.

Km—kilometers

M—midnight

Mi—miles

N—noon

P—p.m.

(ET)—Eastern Time  
(CT)—Central Time

(MT)—Mountain Time  
(PT)—Pacific Time

(AT)—Atlantic Time  
or Alaska Time

(Church & Moss, 1983)

7-4

**Question:**

You want to go from New York to Chicago by train and you like to travel in style. You can't leave until 5:00 p.m. on Monday, and you have to be there by 10:30 Wednesday morning. Decide which train you'd like to take.

(Church & Moss, 1983)

Study this advertisement



Answer the questions

1. What are this cab company's hours of operation?
2. Do the cabs have meters, or do you and the driver have to settle on a price?
3. Can you request an air-conditioned cab?
4. Does this company offer discounts on some trips?
5. If you want to have a package delivered, can you call this company?
6. Your car has a dead battery. Can you call a cab to help you get it started?
7. You work for a company that has a branch office here. Might they have an account with this cab company? If they do, what does that mean for you?
8. Does this company take credit cards? Which ones?

### More Helpful Things To Know about Transportation in the City.

There are several ways to pay for bus transportation in the city. In some cities, you drop your money into the fare box. In others, you buy tickets before you get on the bus. In some you can buy a special pass to be used for the day, week, or month. And in some you buy tokens, which look something like coins, and you use them to get on the bus or enter the subway. Subways in cities are known by different names. In Boston, the system is the MTA, sometimes called "the T." Washington, D.C., has a new subway they call the Metro, and the San Francisco Bay Area's system is BART--Bay Area Rapid transit. In New York, it's the subway, but people often say the name of the line, e.g., the 8th Avenue. And in Chicago, the tracks are partly underground and partly elevated, and people call the system "the el."

The Amtrak timetable is small enough to carry in your purse. Ask for one at a travel agent's or a train station--it's free. You can charge your Amtrak tickets to a credit card.

Shuttle flights leave New York from LaGuardia Airport. Generally, shuttles to and from these and other cities depart once an hour from morning until 9:00 or so at night. You don't need a reservation and you can buy your ticket on board.

(Church & Moss, 1983)

**Questions for understanding:**

1. How can you pay for the buses?
2. What is the subway system in Boston called?
3. What is the subway system in Washington, D. C. called?
4. What is the subway system in San Francisco called?
5. How about in Chicago?
6. Where can you get timetable for Amtrack?
7. How often can you get on shuttle bus?

## Assessment Sheet

Some cities are more expensive to live in than others. How expensive is the city you are in now? Together, fill in column 1 of the chart with the prices in this city or town.

How much is _____	in this city	in my hometown	in _____	in _____	in _____
a bus ride					
a liter of gas					
a movie ticket					
a pair of jeans					
a pack of cigarettes					
dinner in a good restaurant					

**Useful language : Making a comparison.**

How much is \_\_\_\_\_ in \_\_\_\_\_?

A \_\_\_\_\_ is cheaper in \_\_\_\_\_ than in \_\_\_\_\_.

A \_\_\_\_\_ is more/less expensive in \_\_\_\_\_ than in \_\_\_\_\_.

A \_\_\_\_\_ costs the same in \_\_\_\_\_ as in \_\_\_\_\_.

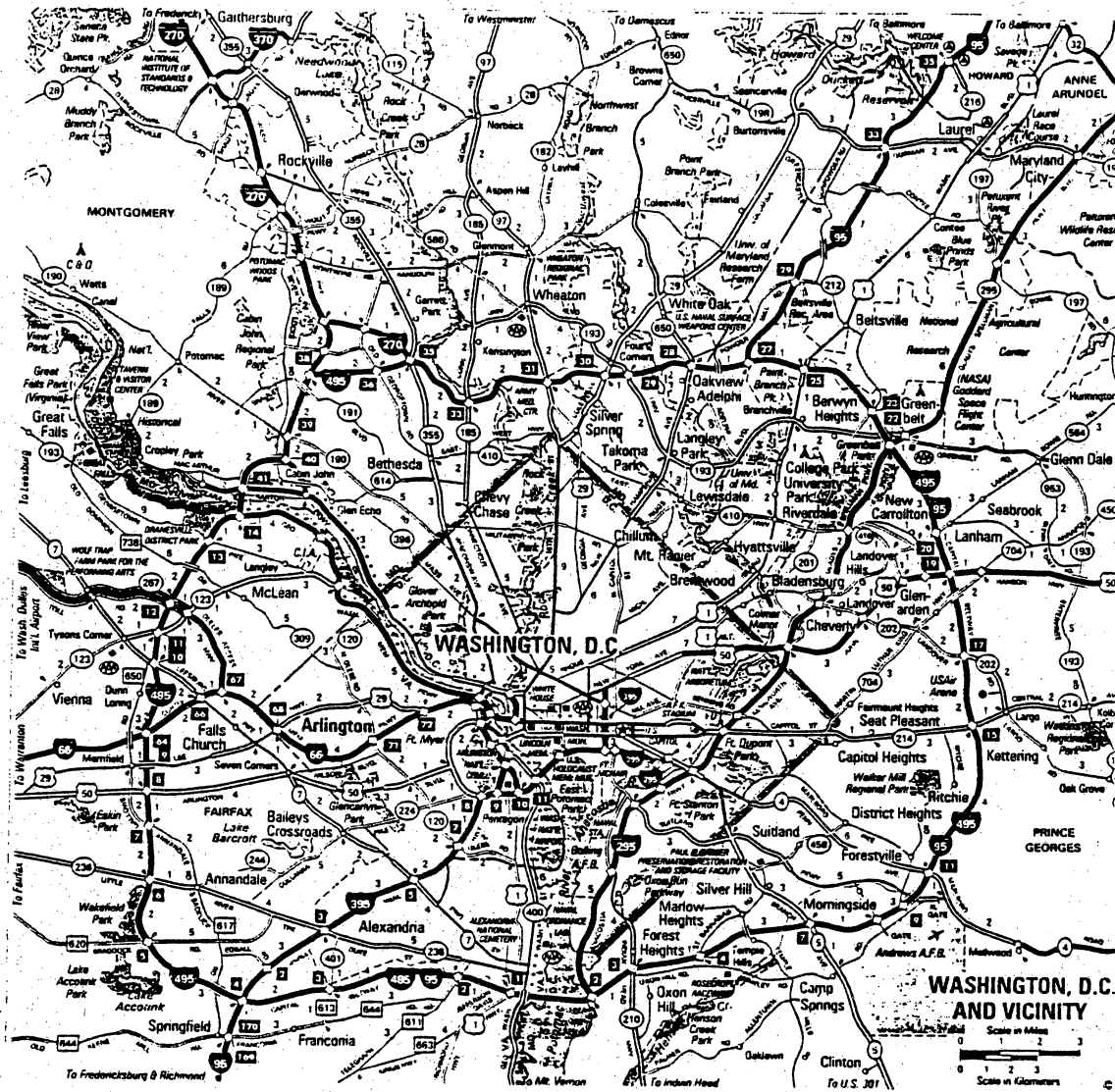
Here are indexes from two New York City papers--the *Village Voice*, a weekly, and the *New York Times*, a daily. Usually, you can find the index, or table of contents, on the front page of the newspaper.

A daily newspaper is a good place to look for radio and TV schedules, and ads for movies and concerts. Some newspapers have lists of other events, too--football, soccer and baseball games, or bike rides and nature hikes organized by the local parks department, for example. But some daily papers list only a few of these events, so you should also pick up a copy of the weekly paper that most cities have, or the university paper if you're in a college town. These papers usually have more complete listings of what's happening around town.

In addition to newspapers, hotels are good places to get information. Some have calendars of events they give free to their guests, and the clerks will usually help you find out what sights there are to see. If you're driving across the country or through a city, you can also check the billboards you'll see along the roads. They advertise not only products but also coming events and sights to see.

(Church & Moss, 1983)

## 8-2 Spending A Day in Washington, D. C.



(AAA, 1996)



Check the 5 sights you would most like to see and why.

Museums		Monuments	
_____	Museum Of American History	_____	The Washington Monument
_____	Natural History Museum	_____	The Lincoln Memorial
_____	Air and Space Museum	_____	The Jefferson Memorial
Government Buildings		Other attractions	
_____	The White House	_____	National Portrait Gallery
_____	The Capitol	_____	Botanic Gardens
_____	Supreme Court	_____	The John F. Kennedy Center

**Useful language:**

I'd like to see \_\_\_\_\_ because \_\_\_\_\_.

## New York Map



(AAA, 1996)

# 8-3 New York Map



(AAA, 1996)

With a partner, practice expressing an opinion and then agreeing with it. You can add an intensifier or a statement after the agreement phrase to make it stronger and clearer if you'd like. You can also make your agreement reluctant if you care to.

**Example: spring**

A: Personally, I think spring is the most beautiful time of year in Washington.

B: I definitely agree! It really is beautiful.

1. Horror movies

A:

B:

2. Traveling by bus

3. Shopping

4. Summer vacations

5. Historical museums

(Wall, 1987)

Here are some opinions. Disagreeing with them in two ways. First, very directly, and then, by softening the disagreement and making it more direct. Don't worry if you are not familiar with all the places mentioned. You don't need to know them to be able to make appropriate kinds of disagreements.

**Example:** Don't you think we should go to Venice Beach this Sunday?

Direct: You must be joking! I think there are too many strange people there!

Indirect: I can't agree with you. I think it would be too many people on Sunday.

1. I think the White House is the place you should definitely visit while you are in Washington, D.C.
2. I think that air fair should be lowered to at least 20 % off of its present prices.
3. Personally, I think traveling by ship is the most comfortable way of spending time.
4. That trip to France was the most wonderful experience we've had last year.
5. In my opinion, Disney World is the best vacation spot in the United States.

Choose partners and take roles, completing the dialogs appropriately. Consider the relationship between the speakers and the setting as you choose ways of agreeing and disagreeing. When you finish, change roles and complete the dialogs a little differently.

1. Julio and Alice are husband wife, discussing their summer vacation.

Alice:

Julio: I don't agree, honey. I think Florida would be too hot that time of year.

Alice:

Julio: That's true, but remember, we went there two years ago, and it rained four out of six days.

Alice:

Julio: Now that's a good idea! I'll have our travel agent look into it.

(Wall, 1987)

2. Harvey and Steve are friends driving home together after seeing a rock concert.

Harvey:

Steve: I thought they were terrible! That was the worst concert I've been to in a long time!

Harvey:

Steve: I'm glad you agree. What did you think about the first singer?

Harvey:

Steve: How can you say that? I could understand every word she sang!

(Wall, 1987)

## Assessment Sheet

Choose a partner, take roles, and then act out the following dialogues, using appropriate tone of voice and gestures. Afterward, discuss the dialogue and the questions that follow.

Alicia: I think this hotel is the most gorgeous hotel I've ever seen. And they've decorated it so nicely, don't you think?

Naomi: Well, I do like the hotel, but personally, I hate the way they've decorated it. And I don't like the colors at all.

Alicia: Are you kidding? The pink and blue look gorgeous together!

Naomi: I'm sorry, Alicia, but it just doesn't appeal to me. And I don't like that kind of furniture. I like more modern things.

Alicia: Well, I couldn't agree less! I think it's all lovely!

**Questions for understanding:**

1. What clue in Alicia's first comment lets you know that she's hoping Naomi agrees with her opinion?
2. Does Naomi agree with any of Alicia's opinions? If so, Which one(s)?
3. Change the dialogue so that Naomi agrees with everything Alicia says.



**Discussing pros**

I think it'll be good because...

It will create good...

I feel it would benefit me in that....

I think that is a very compelling reason to....

**Discussing cons**

It's a bad idea because...

It will create bad...

It would probably take away from my...

I don't think we should do that because.....

I think it will bring a bad consequence because...

**Questions:** What do you think about...

1) traveling by air

2) traveling by ship

3) traveling by bus

4) traveling by car

5) traveling by train

## Discussing Pros And Cons

**Example:** Trip to beachPro

swimming

good for tan

Can see people in swimsuit

Seashore restaurants

Con

too many people

its too hot

might get lost

parking fee is high

food is expensive

long drive to beach

1. Disneyland

2. Sea world

3. Picnic

4. Mountain climbing

5. Cruising

Doug and Hans are classmates.

Doug: I'm considering taking Dr. Nicholas's psychology class.

Hans: I had his class before.

Doug: How was it?

Hans: He is a good teacher (Pro).

But he makes you work hard for your grade (Con).

Make a pair, and give both pros and cons about the following topics.

1. A place you went lately
2. A movie that you recently saw
3. Visiting your hometown
4. Restaurant that you recently dined

## Assessment Sheet

Lloyd and Ameer are co-workers at the High Quality Broadcasting company. Recently the company organized a trip to New York for its employees and Lloyd and Ameer joined the trip. They are on their way to go to New York on a plane and they are talking about the new company rule which prohibits smoking in the office.

Lloyd: Ameer, what do you think about the new company rule prohibiting smoking in the office building?

Ameer: Personally, Lloyd, I'm greatly in favor of it. It's very annoying---not to mention unhealthful---for me to be in our small room, trying to work, with four people puffing on cancer sticks around me.

Lloyd: Oh--I'm in total agreement with you! I absolutely detest having to sit next to smokers, but I wonder how the office smokers are going to take it? I feel kind of sorry for them.

Ameer: I don't at all! They're going to have a smoking lounge, so if they have to smoke, they can go there or outside. That's more than enough for them.

**Questions:**

1. What are Ameer's and Lloyd's opinions about smokers and about the new office policy?
2. What are they in disagreement about?
3. Change the dialogue so that the two men disagree strongly with each other on the subject.

11-1

A trip to \_\_\_\_\_ with \_\_\_\_\_ on \_\_\_\_\_.

Item	Price
transportation (subway)	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

**Total** \_\_\_\_\_

2

A trip to \_\_\_\_\_ with \_\_\_\_\_ from \_\_\_\_\_  
to \_\_\_\_\_.

Item	Price
<u>Transportation</u>	_____
<u>Accommodation</u>	_____
<u>Meals</u>	_____
<u>A movie ticket</u>	_____
<u>Museum fee</u>	_____
<u>A bus ride</u>	_____
<u>Clothing</u>	_____
<u>Snacks</u>	_____
<u>Miscellaneous</u>	_____
<u>Presents</u>	_____
<b>Total</b>	_____

Alice: Honey, do you remember the vacation plans we made for this summer?

John: Yeah. We will go on Caribbean cruise for a week, right?

Alice: Yeah. I need to talk to you about the package the travel agent offered to us. They said it would be \$2,000 for each of us including round trip airfare and meals for a whole week. But I found out that it is a little bit over our budget plans. Since we bought a new car this month, we really need to adjust our budget if we are still going on a trip this summer vacation. I was thinking maybe we can change it to a travel package which is less expensive. They won't have all of the same features as the other one offered, but I'm sure you'll still like it.

John: OK. Sure. Let's go for that.

**Questions for understanding:**

1. Where are Alice and John going this summer?
2. How long will they be gone for a vacation?
3. What is included in the package?



**Useful Language:**

How much did you spend for \_\_\_\_\_?

I paid \$\_\_\_\_\_ for \_\_\_\_\_ at \_\_\_\_\_, but I should have \_\_\_\_\_,

Then, I could have \_\_\_\_\_ instead.

I bought \_\_\_\_\_ from \_\_\_\_\_ for \$\_\_\_\_\_, but I should have

\_\_\_\_\_. Then, I could have \_\_\_\_\_ instead.

## Word Search

Circle each of these words in the box below. These are the things you need to bring when you go traveling.

camera umbrella purse clothes towels maps  
 film pajama shaver underwear jacket sweater  
 medicine sun glasses

S R H R C A M E R A O  
 B S E S S A L G N U S  
 M R D Z C L O T H E S  
 E A U P A J A M A C H  
 D E T M S W A E L T A  
 I W E C B W S C S M V  
 C R R M A R E L K D E  
 I E G A U M E A M E R  
 N D E P Y W E L T A T  
 E N N S O P I R L E O  
 I U T T V F Q N A A R

## Assessment Sheet

My monthly expenses

rent \$ \_\_\_\_\_

groceries \$ \_\_\_\_\_

insurance \$ \_\_\_\_\_

Others (movies, cloth)

utilities \$ \_\_\_\_\_

\$ \_\_\_\_\_

phone bill \$ \_\_\_\_\_

Money you save every month \$ \_\_\_\_\_

It will take \_\_\_\_\_ month(s) for me to save the money to go to

New Orleans.

I want to bring \$ \_\_\_\_\_ with me when I go to New Orleans.

How do you go about finding a place to stay? Well, plenty of hotels advertise at airports. If you arrive by train or car, probably the best thing to do is look in the Yellow Pages under Hotel, Motel, or Lodging. You can start by comparing the services offered in their ads. In any case, you'll have to call them and see if they have the kind of room you're looking for.

Places to stay may be called hotels, motels or motor hotels, inns, lodges or resorts. These are all similar. Motels have plenty of parking space and are usually near a freeway or highway. Inns are usually like motels. Lodges and resorts, or resort hotels, are in the mountains on the coast, or near lakes.

Beds--that's right, beds--also go by many different names. Starting with the smallest, there are single, twin, double, queen and king size ones. "Lodging boys" are for exceptionally tall people. At some hotels, queen beds are the smallest size used, so a double room has two of them. Some hotels even offer their guests waterbeds. A rollaway can be moved into a room to sleep an extra person. Hide-a-beds are sofas that fold out to make beds.

(Church & Moss, 1983)

At The Reception Desk of A Hotel.

Clerk: Hi! Can I help you?

Martin: Yes, do you have a suite available this weekend, something with a living area and a kitchenette?

Clerk: Well, the only one that's available this weekend is the executive suite, and that'll run you \$140 a night.

Martin: I see. That's pretty high...

Clerk: Sir, this double is more than twenty feet square, and it has a refrigerator.

Martin: Oh, really? That sounds fine, then. What do you say, Sally?

Sally: Sounds good to me, too.

Clerk: Good, the double then. Do you have a credit card, sir?

Martin: No, I'll be paying cash.

Clerk: Then I'll have to ask you to pay in advance. Fifty-five a night, plus \$8 tax comes to \$126. And would you fill out this registration form, please? Here's a pen. Just your name, address, and the make and license number of your car. Martin: OK...here you are. And travelers checks for \$130.

Clerk: Fine, Mr. Baum. Here's \$4 change. Check-out time is 12:00 noon. Your room is 615. The bellman will take you up. If you need anything, let me know.

Martin/Sally: Thank you. Good night.

(Church & Moss, 1983)

**Questions for Understanding:**

1. Describe the room the Baums have gotten.
2. Is there a stove in it?
3. Why don't they rent a suite?
4. Why do they have to pay in advance?
5. What information does the clerk want from Martin?
6. When do guests have to check out of the hotel?
7. Who is going to show the Baums to their room?
8. What's their room number?
9. How does Martin pay for the room?
10. What should the Baums do if they need something?

Martin is calling the front desk from his room because there are a couple of things wrong.

Clerk: Front desk.

Martin: Hello. This is Martin Baum. The bathroom light in my room doesn't work.

Could you have somebody come up and take a look at it, please?

Clerk: Oh, of course, Mr. Baum. What room number was that, please?

Martin: Room 615.

Clerk: Okay, I'll have a man up there in a minute.

Martin: Fine. And another thing---I don't seem to have a room service menu. Is there one?

Clerk: Yes, there is. We have 24-hour room service. I'm sorry about that. I'll have a service waiter bring you a menu up right away.

Martin: Thanks.

Clerk: If you need anything else, just let me know.

Martin: I will. Good night.

Clerk: Good night.

(Church & Moss, 1983)

12-3

Have students make pairs and answer the questions.

Tell exactly what Martin said when he

- complained about the bathroom light.

- asked the clerk to have someone look at the light.

- said he didn't have a room service menu.



Take a look at the ad below and answer the questions.



**HYATT**  
R E G E N C Y  
L A K E T A H O E

A HYATT RESORT AND CASINO

**The ideal choice for a winter adventure  
or a warm-weather getaway...**

The Hyatt Regency Lake Tahoe is nestled amid the pines on Lake Tahoe's breathtaking north shore.

**Accommodations:** ▲ 458 rooms ▲ 22 suites  
▲ Beachfront lakeside cottages ▲ Regency Club

**Facilities and Amenities:** ▲ White sand beach ▲ Heated Pool ▲ Health Spa ▲ Tennis  
▲ Near-by horseback riding, hiking, golf, skiing



**The perfect year-round playground  
for individuals and families!**

**Questions for understanding:**

1. How many rooms does HYATT REGENCY Lake Tahoe have?
2. How many suites are available at HYATT REGENCY Lake Tahoe?
3. What kind of facilities are available at the hotel?
4. What can people enjoy near the hotel?

## At a Reception Desk

Bill: We'd like to do some shopping this afternoon. Could you give us some advice on where the best place to go might be?

Clerk: Sure. There's a gift shop here in the hotel, and a tobacco shop, and we're in the business district, so you can reach the city's best stores on foot. Did you want to shop for clothing or what?

Kathy: Yes, we'd like to shop for both men's and women's clothes and Shoes, and maybe cookware, too.

Clerk: All right, when you leave the hotel, turn left. You'll be heading south.

Two blocks down the street is a very nice department store called

Nordstrom's. Three blocks farther there are two shoe stores, and one block east there is a cookware shop called Kitchen Kaboodle.

Bill: I'd also be interested in a bookstore, and a game or toy store.

Clerk: Hmm...there's a bookstore at the corner of 8th and Silver Streets--- that's west of Nordstrom's. I'm not sure if they carry games or not. And there's an import shop up the street a block from there. They might carry kitchen stuff, too. And then you can always go out to Beaverton Mall. That's a shopping center about five miles away.

Bill: Okay, thanks a lot.

(Church & Moss, 1983)

12-5

Assessment Sheet

Have students work on the following questions.

Tell exactly

-how Bill asked for advice on where to go shopping.

-how Kathy described what they would like to shop for.

-how Bill said he would be interested in a bookstore.

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